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The Relationship between Teacher Efficacy and Reading Program Type in West Virginia Elementary Schools

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER EFFICACY AND READING PROGRAM TYPE IN WEST VIRGINIA ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT

The Relationship between Teacher Efficacy and Reading Program Type in West Virginia Elementary Schools

This study, based on Bandura's social cognitive theory, explored the two dimensions of teacher efficacy among reading program types (Harcourt; Houghton Mifflin; MacMillan McGraw Hill; Pearson Scott Foresman; and, Other) and selected demographic factors (school enrollment size; student ethnicity; school district of urban, rural, and suburban; student socioeconomic status; teacher's level of education; teacher's years of experience; and, teacher certification of highly qualified or not-highly qualified). Utilizing Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) combined with an author-created selected demographic questionnaire, a sample of 364 elementary teachers participated representing a population of 6,204 elementary teachers of reading. A one-way ANOVA revealed that there was no significant difference of general teaching efficacy among the reading program types, no significant difference of personal teaching efficacy among the reading program types, but found differences of personal teaching efficacy between Harcourt and MacMillan McGraw Hill reading programs. A lack of significance was found between general teaching efficacy and all selected demographic factors and between personal teaching efficacy and all selected demographic factors. Conclusions suggest that teaching efficacy among the reading program types and the selected demographics are more similar than different. Implications for practical application include continuation of National Reading Panel's (2000) recommendations, Reading First/ K-3 Tiered Reading Model essential reading elements, and fidelity to the core reading program. Theoretical implications include review and synthesis of teacher efficacy research for critical elements of motivation. Suggestions for universities to market opportunities for advanced degrees in reading and utilization of teacher efficacy research in courses were encouraged.

DEDICATION

I dedicate my dissertation to Ovella, my sister. You mean so much to me.

I would like to dedicate my dissertation to the teachers, especially those in my school. Thank you for believing in your abilities to teach children successfully. You truly do make a difference. I hope you realize that you really do change lives.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

This study examined the motivational concept of the sense of efficacy in the profession of education termed "teacher efficacy." Teacher efficacy is rooted in Bandura's social cognitive theory. Teacher efficacy is the teacher's belief in the ability to bring about student learning (Smylie, 1988). There are two dimensions of teacher efficacy: general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy.

General teaching efficacy is a teacher's belief in whether teaching itself can impact student learning regardless of external constraints (Bandura, 1997). Personal teaching efficacy is the belief in the individual teacher and his/her own personal capacity to influence student learning (Ashton & Webb, 1982).

Teaching efficacy should be explored in varied domains (Pajares, 1997; Pintrich, 1994). One of these domains is reading. For example, Oxendine (2005) has stated that additional research on motivation and the role of the teacher is crucial to the success in Reading First schools (Oxendine, 2005). According to Bond and Dykstra, research should be conducted on the teacher and the learning situation (Bond & Dykstra, 1967, p. 123). Thus, the focus of the study is on teacher efficacy because reading experts have stated that the teacher and teacher expertise are more important than reading programs (Allington, 2002). Indeed, the teacher remains the key to a successful reading program (Winograd & Greenlee, 1986). Thus, this study will examine the reading program types in relation to the efficacy of the teacher.

The basis for what and how to teach reading stems from the initiative No Child Left Behind. The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2002 was strengthened nationally in 2007. The initiative of No Child Left Behind is similar to other trends internationally, in that it has standardized and packaged education into a "business portfolio" of accountability, efficiency, performance standards, quality assurance, auditing, standardized assessments, researched-based programs, standards-based curricula, and data-driven analysis (WV Department of Education, A Chronicle of West Virginia's 21st Century Learning Initiative (2004-2008), June 2008; WV Department of Education, 21st Century Skills in West Virginia, 2007).

A major component of the NCLB federal legislation was Reading First. When NCLB was strengthened in 2007, the Reading First component was also expanded (Spellings & U.S. Dept. of Education, 2007). Out of the Reading First component of No Child Left Behind has emerged the K-3 Tiered Reading Model currently utilized by teachers in West Virginia.

Reading is an emphasized core subject and reading skills are considered basic skills under the NCLB (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2007; Spellings & U. S. Department of Education, 2007; U. S. Department of Education, 2002; WV Department of Education 21st Century Implementation Model, Descriptions: The Six Elements of 21st Century Learning, 2006). The NCLB Act of 2002 emphasizes student achievement in reading and assesses it through mandated testing of this core subject. The top priority of the public education has focused on improving student achievement in reading at the local, state, and national levels.

In order to increase student achievement in reading, each teacher is required to follow a main basal series reading program or core reading program for reading instruction. Specifically, all core reading programs are to be scientifically research-based. Importantly,

all core reading programs are to encompass five essential components: phonemic awareness, phonics instruction, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension (National Reading Panel, 2000; WV Department of Education 21st Century Implementation Model: High Yield Strategies, 2006). A core reading program is to be used daily and will utilize explicit instruction to teach the five components in a systematic and sequential manner (WV Department of Education Fidelity to the Program, 2006; WV Department of Education *Technical Assistance Guide,* 2005).

Consequently, core reading programs for West Virginia were selected by the Department of Education. In West Virginia, the most recent, statewide-approved commercialized core reading programs were Harcourt, Houghton Mifflin, MacMillan McGraw Hill, and Pearson Scott Foresman. If a district did not want one of the state-approved commercial reading programs, then the district had to write a waiver in order to be approved to select another core reading program.

The reading component of the No Child Left Behind Act has goals to bring all students to grade level. Similarly, it has goals to increase the knowledge base of teachers. Also, an important tenet of the reading component of No Child Left Behind is its influence on curriculum and instructional improvement (Afflerbach et al., 2008; Bear et al., 2007; Beck et al., 2008; Cooper et al., 2007; No Child Left Behind, 2002, 2007; Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2007).

There exists the need for instructional improvement; nonetheless, teacher efficacy is a topic that has been often overlooked in its influence on instructional improvement (Betts-Lane, 1997). Indeed, the critical component in the effectiveness of education that should not

be overlooked is the teacher himself/herself (Ashton & Webb, 1986).

The beliefs of individual teachers and of teachers in general having the capacity to influence student learning have been linked to a number of important variables (Ashton & Webb, 1986). The construct of teacher efficacy is related to a number of important variables, but the relationship between efficacy and those variables is not understood by researchers (Fives, April 2003). For this reason, Gibson and Dembo (1984) have recommended that relationships between situational and organizational variables should be investigated. Specifically, researchers, teacher educators, and administrators are interested in knowing what teacher attributes and sources contribute to a sense of teacher efficacy (Hoy & Miskel, 2001).

Examining the reading teacher's efficacy will provide a component for policymakers and educators who make decisions for reading goals. One must consider the ability of the teacher and its influence on reading. For example, the International Reading Association stated that the excellent reading teacher's experience and expertise should be respected as providing an essential component for reading success (Farstrup, Jun/July 2002). Therefore, this study will research the reading teachers' efficacy in order to examine their perceptions of their expertise or abilities to successfully teach reading using a specific adopted reading program.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine teacher efficacy and its relationship to selected reading programs. This examination further explored these relationships by selected demographic factors. The major focus of the study, teacher efficacy was explored in the two

dimensions of general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy. Furthermore, the specific context that was explored in this study was the reading domain. As a secondary focus, demographic factors were situational or organizational variables and teacher attributes and sources. The situational and organizational variables are student socioeconomic status; student ethnicity; urban, suburban, and rural school districts; and, school enrollment size. The teacher attributes and sources are the teacher's level of education, certification, and years of experience.

Statement of the Problem

While the federal initiative of No Child Left Behind, Reading First, K-3 Tiered Reading Model, and selected core reading programs (Harcourt, Houghton Mifflin, MacMillan McGraw Hill, and Pearson Scott Foresman) have implemented reading measures that claim to enhance reading curriculum and instruction and raise student reading achievement, these measures have not, however, considered teacher motivation in relation to the core reading program. The problem is that a paucity of studies presently exists that focuses on teacher efficacy and its relationship to the selected reading programs. The dimensions of general and personal teaching efficacy and their relationships to the selected reading programs are important in the context of teacher motivation. Indeed, understanding general and personal teaching efficacy is one of the most critical elements in educational effectiveness—the teacher. Emphatically, recent effective schools research has suggested that the teacher is the factor that makes the difference in student learning (Hill & Rowe, 1994).

Significance of the Study

Utilizing student achievement test scores on standardized tests as the only criterion for effective schools provides a weak standard. Furthermore, according to Franklin (1989), much of effective schools research tends to focus on teacher effects rather than on teacher characteristics and lacks the use of the teacher as the unit of analysis.

The research on reading is not focused on teachers (National Reading Panel, 2000). For example, teachers should have a body of knowledge that is important for being a teacher (Shulman, 1986). However, expert teachers produce readers regardless of the program they are required to use because they modify the reading programs to meet the needs of their students (Allington, 2002). Decision makers need to focus on teacher characteristics and learning situation characteristics rather than the methods and materials of the curriculum (Bond & Dykstra, 1967). Therefore, this proposed study will focus on the teacher, specifically the efficacy of the teacher.

According to Mark (1984), future research should examine the effects of demographic characteristics on the relationship between teacher efficacy and organizational structure. Thus, Gibson (1983) stated relationships with situational and organizational variables should be investigated.

Certain demographic characteristics may account for differences in school performance, but a clear examination of teacher efficacy and its relation to the seven demographic factors is not present (Angle, 2006; Franklin, 1989; Hughes, 2006; Loup, 1994; Madden-Szeszko, 2000; Mark, 1984; Rogers, 2006; Sarabun, 1995; Sofford, 1995; and, Taylor, 2005). This study will allow for the examination of teacher efficacy as it exists in

seven different demographic contexts.

School systems, policymakers, and decision makers must bear a large part of the responsibility for student learning gaps and the breakdown of teacher performance. These groups have not adequately addressed teacher motivation, specifically teacher efficacy. Self-efficacy is an important factor in understanding and predicting teacher behavior.

Research Questions

What are the differences in general teaching efficacy among the core reading program types used by teachers?

What are the differences in personal teaching efficacy among the core reading program types used by teachers?

Is there a significant difference between general teaching efficacy due to selected demographic factors?

Is there a significant difference between personal teacher efficacy due to selected demographic factors?

Definition of Terms

Teacher efficacy- the extent to which teachers believe that they have the ability to affect student performance (Ashton, 1984); the teacher's judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk-Hoy, & Hoy, 1998); in this study, personal teaching efficacy plus general teaching efficacy as measured by Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale. The Gibson and Dembo Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) has been the

instrument most used in research for measuring teacher efficacy. This scale incorporated the idea of internal and external control with Bandura's construct of self-efficacy. According to Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale, teacher efficacy is comprised of two factors or independent dimensions called general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy. Based on the results of both factors, a teacher is deemed to be a high-efficacy teacher or a low-efficacy teacher. A high-efficacy teacher will have results which indicate that teacher has a strong belief in his/her ability to influence student learning; whereas a low-efficacy teacher's scores will indicate that the teacher has a weak belief in his/her ability to influence student learning. The general teaching efficacy score is based upon a combination of both Factor 1 and Factor 2 results.

Personal teaching efficacy- a teacher's belief that he or she, as an individual, can influence student learning (Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998) as measured by Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale. The beliefs about the efficacy of one's own teaching is termed personal teaching efficacy. Gibson and Dembo's personal teaching efficacy (PTE) was similar to Bandura's efficacy expectations. In Gibson and Dembo's scale, personal teaching efficacy is reflected as Factor 1 and is related to the Rand studies dimension, "If I try really hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students." It is also similar to Rotter's internal locus of control.

General teaching efficacy- teacher's expectations that teaching can influence learning (Ashton & Webb, 1986) as measured by Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale. The

beliefs about external factors influencing teachers and schools are termed general teaching efficacy. Gibson and Dembo's general teaching efficacy (GTE) was similar to Bandura's outcome expectations. In Gibson and Dembo's teaching scale, it is the general relationship between teaching and learning. Called Factor 2 of the TES, it is similar to the Rand studies dimension, "When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can't do much because most of a student's motivation and performance depends on his or her home environment." Also, it reflects Bandura's outcome expectancy dimension and Rotter's external control dimension or degree in which students can be taught given family background, socioeconomic status, and school situations or conditions.

Core reading program- the primary instructional tool that teachers use to teach students to learn to read; a basal reading program (Simmons & Kame'enui, 2003). For the purposes of this study, the selected core reading programs are the following: (1) Harcourt; (2) Houghton Mifflin; (3) MacMillan McGraw Hill; (4) Pearson Scott Foresman; and, (5) Other as measured by a demographic survey; also, considered a curricular variable.

School district organization – the organizational demographic structure of a school district's location as being rural, suburban, or urban as measured by a demographic survey (Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000); also, considered a composition, contextual, or school climate variable.

School size – the size of a school based on the number of students enrolled in the school; termed small, medium, or large school size based upon student enrollment as measured by a

demographic survey (Cotton, 1996); also, considered a school context or school climate variable.

Student ethnicity – cultural heritage shared by a group of students; subcategories for identifying groups of students based on ethnicity of White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, Pacific Islander, and Native American as measured by a demographic survey (West Virginia Report Card, 2007); also, considered a school composition, social-psychological system, or school context or climate variable.

Student socioeconomic status – the economic condition of the student as based on the family's income as measured by a demographic survey (Thompson & Hickey, 2005); for the purposes of this study, the terms low, medium, and high socioeconomic statuses will be utilized; also, considered a school composition, social-psychological system, or school context or climate variable.

Teacher's level of education – the level of college or university degrees that a teacher has acquired; bachelors degree, masters degree, doctorate, or other as measured by a demographic survey (West Virginia Report Card, 2007); also, considered a school's personality or school's climate or contextual variable.

Teacher's qualifications of "highly qualified" or "not-highly qualified" – the condition of a teacher's licensure as measured by a demographic survey. A teacher is considered to be

highly qualified if the teacher has certification in the academic subject(s) that the teacher is teaching. A teacher is considered to be not-highly qualified if the teacher does not possess the appropriate certification in the academic subject(s) that the teacher is teaching (No Child Left Behind, Public Law 107-110, 2002); also, considered a school's personality or school's climate or contextual/organizational variable.

Teacher's years of experience – the number of years that a teacher has been teaching as measured by a demographic survey; also, considered a personality or school's climate or contextual/organizational variable. A novice teacher is a teacher with less than five years of experience. A veteran teacher has acquired five or more years of experience (Ashton, Webb, & Doda, 1982).

Operational Definitions of Variables

Teacher Efficacy – a score derived from the Gibson and Dembo Teacher Efficacy Scale based upon the combined personal and general teaching efficacy scores

Personal Teaching Efficacy – the score on the Gibson and Dembo Teacher Efficacy Scale based upon the personal teaching efficacy score

General Teaching Efficacy – the score on the Gibson and Dembo Teacher Efficacy Scale based upon the general teaching efficacy score

Core Reading Program – the current core reading program being used by the study

participant as indicated by a response on the study author's created demographic survey

School District Rurality – the nature of the school's community where the study participant works as indicated by a response on the study author's created demographic survey

School Size – the student population of the schools where the study participant works as indicated by a response on the study author's created demographic survey

Student Ethnicity – the percentage of the respondent's school's student population that belongs to various racial/ethnic groups as indicated by a response on the study author's created demographic survey

Teacher's Level of Education - the study respondent's indication of the highest degree obtained as indicated by a response on the study author's created demographic survey

Teacher Qualification – the study respondent's indication of his or her possession of a professional West Virginia teaching licensure in reading as indicated by a response on the study author's created demographic survey

Teacher's Years of Experience – the study respondent's indication of the total number of years he or she have been teaching as indicated by a response on the study author's created demographic survey

Method

The theoretical framework for this study is Albert Bandura's social cognitive theory. The social cognitive theory was analyzed as it applied to education, specifically teaching. This study examined teacher efficacy and its two dimensions— personal teaching efficacy and general teaching efficacy. Furthermore, this study examined teaching efficacy and the relationship to selected core reading programs and selected demographic factors.

The target population in this study was identified by a random sampling of public elementary teachers who teach reading as a subject in the state of West Virginia. A demographic questionnaire was created to collect data on teacher's years of experience, teacher's level of education, teacher's qualifications of being highly qualified or not-highly qualified, students' school enrollment size, student ethnicity, school district organizational structure, and the teacher's core reading program.

The research instrument utilized was Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale. This was a 30-item questionnaire which measured general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy. Each statement was rated by the respondent using a 6-point Likert scale which ranges from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." The total instrument had an internal consistency of .78, personal teaching efficacy consistency of .69, and general teaching efficacy consistency of .73. Validity was supported using a multitrait-multimethod analysis. This instrument is considered a standard measure of professional efficacy (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

This study was quantitative in methodology. The data was analyzed using test statistics and relationships were reported as one-way ANOVA correlations.

Limitations of the Study

First, the results of this study cannot be generalized to other schools or school districts. The study reflects the beliefs of the participants of this particular study only. The sample reflects the efficacy of elementary teachers and does not reflect other levels. The study was conducted in the state of West Virginia and may yield different results than if it had been conducted in other states. Second, causality can not be determined in this study because this research was ex post facto. Third, this study was not experimental but was exploratory in nature. Thus, the findings are tentative. Fourth, teacher efficacy is not the only motivational construct and is not the only construct for behavior change in teacher behavior. Finally, the small sample size of not-highly qualified teachers presents a limitation when examining whether there is correlation between general and personal teaching efficacy and certification of highly qualified or not-highly qualified teachers.

Chapter Summary

This study will be presented in five chapters. Chapter I has provided an overview of the study, the purpose of the study, a statement of the problem, the significance of the study, the research questions that were answered, the hypotheses that were examined, definition of relevant terms in the study, operational definitions, and the limitations of the study. Chapter II will present a review of the relevant literature and research that provided the theoretical framework and research foundation for the study. Chapter III will describe the research design and methodology used in the study. Chapter IV will report on the results of the data analysis for each research question in the study. Chapter V will present the summary, conclusions, and recommendations for further research. The study concludes with a

bibliography and appendices.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Background

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature relevant to the examination of teacher efficacy and selected reading programs and the following demographic variables: (1) student socioeconomic status; (2) student ethnicity; (3) school location of urban, suburban, and rural; (4) school environment of school enrollment size; (5) teacher's level of education; (6) teacher certification (highly qualified and not-highly qualified); and, (7) teacher's years of experience. This chapter begins by presenting the need for further research based upon the review of the literature on efficacy and its relationship to Reading First studies and demographic studies. Next, background will be presented on efficacy. An explanation will be presented of the social cognitive theory on which this study is based. Following the theoretical basis, clarification will be presented on the terms "teacher efficacy," "general teaching efficacy," and "personal teaching efficacy." This chapter will also include a description of the results of the research on teacher efficacy and how it pertains to the selected demographic variables. Then the chapter will discuss teacher efficacy and core reading programs under NCLB. Finally, a brief summary will be given of the chapter.

A current study exploring teacher efficacy and Reading First was conducted by Burkhart in 2004. Burkhart's study in 2004 analyzed the Reading First teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of their training in guided reading. The author stated that additional research should be done to determine the effects of the increased training on teacher efficacy. The author stated, "If teachers feel they are more effective, they may be more effective in their teaching strategies" (Burkhart, 2004, p. 72).

A second study conducted on teacher efficacy and recent reading instruction was by Oxendine in 2005. Oxendine's study in 2005 explored the sources that contribute to the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers during the early stages of implementing comprehensive changes in reading instruction. This study explored the Reading First teachers' self-efficacy. The author recommended a study that builds on two bodies of knowledge: educational change and theories and models of teacher self-efficacy (Oxendine, 2005).

A review of the literature on teacher efficacy and the selected demographic variables clearly indicates that numerous studies have been conducted. However, Franklin (1989) and Mark (1984) have recommended further investigations to explore the relationship between teacher efficacy and demographic factors and organizational structure in order to heighten awareness of background influences on teacher efficacy. Further research to explore the relationship between teacher efficacy and other variables is being recommended by other researchers, including the following: Hughes (2006) on differences in demographics and working conditions at all levels of experience; Sarabun (1995) on contextual variables, including the teacher's years of experience; Sofford (1995) on school context variables, such as the teacher's years of experience and the teacher's levels of education; Loup (1994) on changing demographic trends; Taylor (2005) on student ethnicity; Angle (2006) on "highly qualified"; Rogers (2006) on external variables, such as socioeconomic status, and in multiple schools; and, Madden-Szeszko (2000) on diverse school settings, such as school size and student composition. Since no one study has been conducted pertaining to all of the listed demographic factors and their relationship to teacher efficacy, this study could yield significant information to help teachers gain confidence and feel better about their work, add

to the effective teacher research, clarify teacher efficacy, explore the subcategory of teacher motivation, gain a better understanding of quality teaching in order to meet the needs of all students, and contribute to school improvement reforms.

Social Cognitive Learning Theory

This study on teacher self-efficacy is based upon the social cognitive learning theory of Bandura. Teacher self-efficacy is rooted in Bandura's social cognitive theory. In turn, the social cognitive theory has, as its core, the construct of self-efficacy.

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is the perceived belief that a person has about the ability to attain a specified level of performance that acts to influence events that affects the person's life. These beliefs determine a person's feelings, thoughts, and motivations about oneself and how one behaves. A person with a strong sense of self-efficacy has different feelings, thoughts, and motivations that influence his or her behavior toward what one does than a person with weak sense of self-efficacy. The *Encyclopedia of Mental Health* (Friedman, 1998) and the *Encyclopedia of Human Behavior* (Ramachaudran, 1994) provide Bandura's explanation of the distinguishing traits of both strong and weak self-efficacy. The distinguishing feelings, thoughts, and motivations of self-efficacy that Bandura presents are identified in the following chart:

Distinguishing Area	*Strong Self-Efficacy Trait*	*Weak Self-Efficacy Trait*
Approach to difficult task	A challenge to be mastered	A personal threat to avoid
Interest in task	Intrinsic	Is overridden by fear of engaging in task
Engagement in task	Deep engrossment	Spend most of the time dwelling on own deficiencies
Goal Setting for Task	Set challenging goals	Low aspirations
Commitment to task	Strong commitment	Weak commitment
Approach to possible failure	Heighten and sustain effort to overcome failure	Dwell on personal deficiencies or problems they will find Slacken efforts Give up easily
Approach to setback or failure	Quick recovery of self-efficacy	Slow to recover sense of efficacy
Rationalization of the failure	Failure is due to insufficient effort or not having enough knowledge or skills which can be acquired	Failure is due to deficient knowledge or skills Lose faith in their abilities
Approach to a threatening task	Belief in possession and exercise of control over the threat	Have very little or no control over the situation
Result of level of self-efficacy	Accomplishment Stress reduction Positive outlook	Heightened stress Depression

In light of the fact that self-efficacy beliefs are the foundation of human motivation, personal well-being, and personal accomplishment it is easy to see that self-efficacy beliefs touch almost every aspect of a person's life. Furthermore, a person's behavior can be predicted by the judgments he holds about his capabilities better than by his knowledge and skills. According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is a predictor of what a person will do with

the knowledge and skills possessed. For example, a person with a weak sense of efficacy might be capable of accomplishing much more than he has accomplished in reality. Another example is that two people may have possessed the same skills and knowledge, but because they have different beliefs about their capabilities they have had different successes. Surprisingly, knowing what skills, knowledge, and accomplishments a person has had in the past is less of a predictor for a future success than knowing the degree that a person with the skills, knowledge, and past accomplishments believes that he is capable of that future success (Bandura, 1997).

Not only is self-efficacy a predictor of future success for how well knowledge and skills will be applied, but self-efficacy judgments are a determinant of the knowledge and skills that are acquired to begin with. Hence, self-efficacy affects the choices that one makes in life and the courses that one's life takes (Pajares, 1997).

Influencing the choices that one makes in almost every aspect of life, self-efficacy perceptions influence patterns of thoughts, actions, and emotions. Self-efficacy perceptions account for coping behavior changes, self-regulation, behavior responses in controlling environments, achievement efforts, stress reactions, and decision making. Self-efficacy is concerned with how well one can deal with his environmental demands (Bandura, 1982).

Self-efficacy is a perceived belief that a person has about his capabilities to attain a specified level of performance and self-efficacy beliefs are the foundation for a person's motivations, well-being, and accomplishments. Also, self-efficacy is the core of Bandura's social cognitive theory.

Social Cognitive Theory Defined

Bandura's social cognitive learning theory is a theory that emphasizes the significant role of self-beliefs called self-efficacy. With the social cognitive theory, people are neither driven by inner forces nor automatically shaped or controlled by outside stimuli. Cognitive events are related to behavior. Behavior, cognitive factors, other personal factors, and other environmental events interact with each other and are determinants of one another. This interaction of behavior and functioning is called triadic reciprocality (Bandura, 1986). The self-efficacy mechanism regulates one's behavior as it interacts with other factors. As an individual acquires a belief in personal competence, self-efficacy develops with this cognitive process (Ashton & Webb, 1986).

Cognitive processes play a dominant role in acquiring and retaining new behavior patterns. Experiences leave lasting effects because they are coded and kept in the memory. Acquiring responses to information is an important part of learning. The memory serves as a guide for behavior. The guide for behavior is cognitively retained in the memory. Consequences inform the learner what he must do to receive good outcomes and how to avoid negative ones. Individuals discern how to respond in specific situations, which responses are appropriate for the specific situation, and how to behave according to the setting and the situation (Dulany, 1968).

From settings and situations, people cognitively process and integrate feedback information from events over a long period of time. Information influences the thoughts of the person and affects his behavior (Baron, Kaufman & Stauber, 1966). Thus, cognitive processes regulate one's behavior, motivate pursuance of the behavior, and generate

cognitive representations of the future outcomes or outcome expectancies if one behaves accordingly (Bolles, 1972).

Outcome Expectancy

Outcome expectancies cause a person to behave accordingly. Outcome expectancy is a person's judgment that a given behavior will lead to certain outcome. One can believe that a particular behavior will result in a particular outcome and expect it to happen (Bandura, 1977).

Expecting a particular outcome, the outcome expectation probably will aid to predict the person's behavior (Pajares, retrieved 2007). To expand on this, an outcome expectation is a judgment concerning the chance between a person's actions and the outcome happening (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). People create outcome expectations for environmental events around them, observed conditional relations, the outcomes given, and the actions that may be missing (Bandura, 1986). Outcome expectations allow a person to shape the present so that one can have the results for which one hopes, pursue a particular course of action, and discard behaviors that would produce negative consequences (Bandura, 2001).

Allowing a person to shape the present is acquired by regulating, motivating, and generating cognitive representations of the future outcomes. These operate through cognitive processes. One cognitive process is self-motivation which is cognitively evaluating performance based on standards. A second is making self-incentive conditions that create self-persuasions to keep trying until one's performance matches the standards that he has set for himself. Once the outcome matches one's anticipation, the person will often set higher standards of performance. Cognitive processes serve to create and heighten efficacy

expectations (Bandura, 1977).

Efficacy Expectation

An efficacy expectation is the conviction that one can successfully create and carry out the actions required to produce the outcomes. A person may believe that he can behave in a certain way and a certain result will occur but may have doubts whether he can execute the behaviors required to produce the outcome. However, doubting whether he can carry out the behavior does not influence his executing the behaviors required to get the result (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy perceptions help one decide the outcomes that one expects. People who believe in their ability expect to have good results, and people who do not believe in their abilities expect unfavorable outcomes. The believed behaviors may or may not result in the envisioned outcomes. The results a person expects are the outcomes of the judgments of what one can attain (Pajares, 2002).

What a person actually attains is called an outcome. Conversely, an outcome is an end result; and in the social cognitive theory, when one intentionally and with foresight makes things happen by his actions, this is called an "agency." Furthermore, agency functions by enabling a person to play a role in self-development, adaptation, and self-renewal. In other words, a person is an agent— he can make things happen (Bandura, 1997). By making things happen, cognitive processes exert influences of determination in a proactive and reflective mind with intentionality, meaning the acts are done intentionally (Bandura, 2001).

Theorizing that cognitive processes exert influences of determination in a proactive and reflective mind, Bandura has provided the theoretical background of human functioning called the social cognitive learning theory. At the core of the social cognitive learning theory

is self-efficacy. This interacts with behavior, environment, and personal factors in a triadic reciprocity. Similarly, self-efficacy is an agentic, cognitive process that guides one's behavior in reaching an outcome— a result. What a person expects to be his outcome or end result is called an outcome expectancy or outcome expectation. While outcome expectations are related to efficacy expectations— one's convictions that he can behave or execute actions to attain the desired result— they are not the same.

Specifically, outcome is the actual result, whereas outcome expectation is the expected result. Both outcome and outcome expectations are not the behaviors involved to attain that result. Efficacy expectation is one's convictions that one can execute the behaviors needed to create the desired outcome.

Consequently, the social cognitive learning theory of Bandura espoused the role of self-beliefs in human functioning. Clearly, with the emphasis on humans not just being reactive organisms like rats in a maze or even computers, this theory of human behavior, motivation, and thoughts achieved prominence in the field of psychology. Today, the fields of psychology and education are noticing a shift toward interest in self-efficacy as a key to academic motivation (Pajares, 2000). Granted, self-efficacy is a key to academic motivation; and, the next sections will follow this further by examining the construct of teacher efficacy, general teaching efficacy, and personal teaching efficacy.

Teacher Efficacy

Teacher efficacy is the belief that a teacher can successfully teach students regardless of socioeconomic status, family background, environmental conditions, race, or school

conditions (Acker, 2006). Teachers who have high efficacy hold certain beliefs. These self-efficacy beliefs are powerful predictors of their behavior (Sanders & Horn, 1997). As powerful predictors of teacher behavior, these self-efficacy beliefs in their abilities motivate and affect their successes and failures (Bandura, 1997).

According to Ashton (1994), motivation to be successful has several characteristics that would exemplify high efficacy for teachers. Highly efficacious teachers have a sense of personal accomplishment while feeling that their work with students is important and meaningful. They believe that they make a positive impact on student learning and feel good about how they teach. Not only do they feel good about how they teach but they also feel good about themselves and how they affect students (Howell, 2006). Their feelings about their students are positive, and they have a strong sense of control (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1993). They are confident that they can affect student learning. Teachers with high efficacy hold positive expectations for student behavior and student achievement. They expect the students to progress and believe that holding these expectations for the students results in the students living up to their expectations for behavior and achievement (Wright, Horn, & Sanders, 1997). Lastly, these teachers have a personal responsibility for student learning. When a student experiences failure, the teacher looks at his or her own behavior and looks for methods or ways that the teacher can be more helpful (Ashton, 1994).

An example of the high efficacy of teachers examining their own behavior is evidenced in the Texas Teacher Effectiveness Study. Brophy and Evertson (1977) conducted the Texas Teacher Effectiveness Study and found that teachers who were successful in producing gains in student learning assumed personal responsibility for making sure that the

students mastered the learning. These high efficacy teachers worked to discover appropriate teaching methods when they encountered difficulties. The difficulties were viewed as obstacles to overcome in order to result in personal accomplishment (Brophy & Evertson, 1977). High efficacy teachers possess "stick-to-it-ness" in failure situations (Gibson, 1983).

Possessing "stick-to-it-ness" in failure situations manifests itself in instruction and interactions with the students. Therefore, high teaching efficacy is a significant predictor of productive teaching practices (Allinder, 1994). Accordingly, teachers who believe they have an influence on students tend to interact with them in ways that enhance student investment (Midgley, Feldlaufer & Eccles, 1989).

Teachers who believe they can influence student investment have demonstrated certain strategies. Ashton (1994) stated that high-efficacy teachers plan for student learning. They set goals for themselves. They set goals for their students. They identify strategies for achieving these objectives. Consequently, high efficacy teachers believe that students should be involved in decision-making in how to achieve the goals. Therefore, these teachers involve students in determining the strategies for achieving the goals. As a result, there is a sense of common teacher-student joint effort in a democratic process (Ashton, 1994).

While democratic processes help with strategy planning, teachers possessing high efficacy are more likely to try new methods and use the new methods in their classrooms. They are more likely to change their current teaching methods and use the innovative practices (Sparks, 1988). Granted, teachers with a high sense of efficacy are more open to implementing and experimenting with new teaching strategies because they do not view change as an affront to their own abilities as teachers (Chase, Germundsen, Brownstein &

Distad, Spring 2001). Equally important, general organizational literature has linked self-efficacy to work-related performance, including the ability to make better use of one's skills in a changing context (Gist, 1987; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Thus, research suggests that teacher efficacy may be a predictor of adoption of innovations (Midgley, Feldlaufer & Eccles, 1989).

To illustrate, Berman and McLaughlin (1977) evaluated 100 Title III projects of the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act and found that the most important characteristic determining the effectiveness of the change-agent projects was the teacher's sense of efficacy (Berman & McLaughlin, 1977). Consequently, a strong positive relationship exists between the teacher's sense of efficacy and the teacher's maintenance of innovations (Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly & Zellman, 1977).

In summary, high efficacy teachers believe in their abilities and possess optimistic characteristics to successfully instruct students by democratically planning and interacting with students, persevering in the face of failure situations, and trying various strategies. Complicated by the issues of socioeconomic status, family background, environmental conditions, race, and school conditions, the high-efficacy teachers believe they can teach all students successfully (Acker, 2006).

The belief in the ability to teach all students successfully can be traced back to Rotter's locus of control theory. The locus of control theory cited two personality types. One personality type was of a person who believed he was in control of his future. The other personality type was of a person who believed that others were in control of his future (Rotter, 1966). Moreover, Rotter stressed the significance of thinking of personality in terms

of the interaction of the person with his environment when he explained his social learning theory.

Rotter's Locus of Control Theory

Rotter believed that personality was a representation of the interaction between the individual person and his surroundings. He suggested that to understand behavior meant that one must consider the person's life experiences and his awareness or responses to the environmental stimuli. In other words, a person's behavior is not just an automatic response to stimuli nor is it one's personality independent of the environment. Combining the study of personality with a motivational principle of behaviorism is called the empirical law of effect. This is a psychological construct in which a person is motivated to search for positive reinforcement or avoid negative reinforcement. Rotter described personality as a relatively stable set of potentials for responding to situations in a particular way. In addition, personality could be generalized and behavior could be predicted based upon the history of a person's experiences and perceptions that determine one's locus of control (Mearns, 2007).

Specifically, locus of control is the degree to which a person believes that reinforcement will result and that the determinant for whether the reinforcement is positive or negative will be either controlled by external forces or controlled by internal forces. If the result is believed to be from external forces, the person is distinguished as possessing an external locus of control. However, if the result is believed to be from the person's attributes, the person is said to possess an internal locus of control (Rotter, 1971).

External locus of control is when an individual believes that a consequence is based upon something outside oneself. The person may believe that the consequence occurred

because of luck, because of destiny, because of other people who were powerful, or because of complex forces that were beyond his control (Rotter, 1966). Certainly, a person with an external locus of control has the perception that he has little or no control over what happens to him (Mearns, 2007).

For example, a worker with an external locus of control believes that he has no or little control over what happens to him on the job. On-the-job attitudes of an "external" displays the mentality that the quality or quantity of his work is just chance or is likely to be determined by the boss. Often, there appears to him to be no connection between his behavior and whether or not he is successful. He views his efforts or lack thereof as being unpredictable in results. In fact, he most likely accepts no responsibility for the results of his behavior and sees no point in making the effort to try harder (Gardner & Beaity, 2001). Furthermore, an individual who has an external locus of control views his job as threatening and stressful, according to studies conducted by Kyriacou and Sutcliffe on occupational stress in schoolteachers and Rotter's internal-external locus of control (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1977; 1978; 1979).

On the contrary, a person who has an internal locus of control views his world and himself differently than the person who has an external locus of control. In contrast, a person with an internal locus of control believes that the result or outcome was the result of some attribute that he possessed or effort that was espoused by him. A person with an internal locus of control believes that there is something inside of himself that resulted in the consequence. In addition, a person with a strong internal locus of control believes that his success or his failure is because of the amount of effort he puts forth (Mearns, 2007). Clearly,

then, a person believes that the reinforcement is based upon his own actions, behaviors, or responses when he is an internal. The internal believes that the reinforcement is based upon his own characteristics, cognitions, or thoughts which he believes to be a relatively permanent part of his personality (Rotter, 1966).

For example, a worker with an internal locus of control considers himself to be master of his own destiny. Therefore, the worker believes that what happens to him is the direct consequence of the effort he expended on his job and tends to work harder than the external. Furthermore, the mentality of the worker who possesses an internal locus of control accepts responsibility for the consequences of his job performance (Gardner & Beaity, 2001).

The Rand Study

Using Rotter's locus of control theory, Rand researchers conducted a study of teacher characteristics for teaching reading to minority students in an urban school district. They examined the schools in relation to the Preferred Reading Program that the personnel were using in the Los Angeles Unified School District.

The Rand researchers were the first to use the term "teacher efficacy." The Rand researchers established teacher efficacy as being internal or external. The extent that a teacher expressed confidence that the consequences of teaching were within oneself was considered an internally controlled construct and is characteristic of high teacher efficacy. A teacher who believes that the environment overpowers a teacher's ability to teach difficult or unmotivated students is established as being externally controlled and is characteristic of low teacher efficacy. The Rand researchers first conceived teacher efficacy as a reinforcement to motivate students and as a reinforcement to do their jobs. Teacher self-efficacy is one of the

few teacher characteristics related to student achievement (Armor et al., 1976).

Dimensions of Teacher Efficacy

Bandura (1986) asserted that self-efficacy beliefs were the central mediator of determined efforts. He maintained that self-efficacy beliefs lead to a high level of performance and increased perseverance in the face of adversity (Bandura, 1986). In education, all teacher efficacy beliefs are future-oriented judgments about the teacher's ability to plan, organize, and carry out the behaviors that produce success in student performance. The efficacy beliefs with which teachers approach and encounter difficult situations determine how well they execute the skills they possess. (Bandura, 1977; Henson, 2001).

Furthermore, Bandura theorized that self-efficacy was two-dimensional. The two dimensions were general efficacy and expectation outcomes (Bandura, 1977). Ashton and Webb (1982) identified the two dimensions of teacher efficacy as general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy. General teaching efficacy is distinguished from personal teaching efficacy because it separates what teachers believe they can accomplish in general from what the particular teacher believes about what he, as an individual teacher, can confidently accomplish (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Ashton, Webb, and Doda (1982) stated that teacher efficacy is a multi-dimensional construct. The first major dimension of teacher efficacy is a generalized belief system in action-outcome contingencies. The second major dimension is a generalized perception of self-efficacy. The third dimension is a specific belief system about teachers' ability in general to motivate students. The fourth dimension is the specific belief system about the personal

competence in motivating students.

First, is the generalized belief system in action-outcome contingencies. People develop a general expectation on the relationship between behavior, or action, and consequence, or outcome. For example, according to Ashton, Webb, and Doda (1982), teachers begin their teaching profession with individual differences in what they expect and what they will get from teaching.

Second, is the generalized sense of self-efficacy. People, through their life experiences, have developed general personal expectations concerning their own capabilities to determine results. For example, teachers entering the teaching profession have developed personal beliefs about what they, as individuals, will do and will get from teaching.

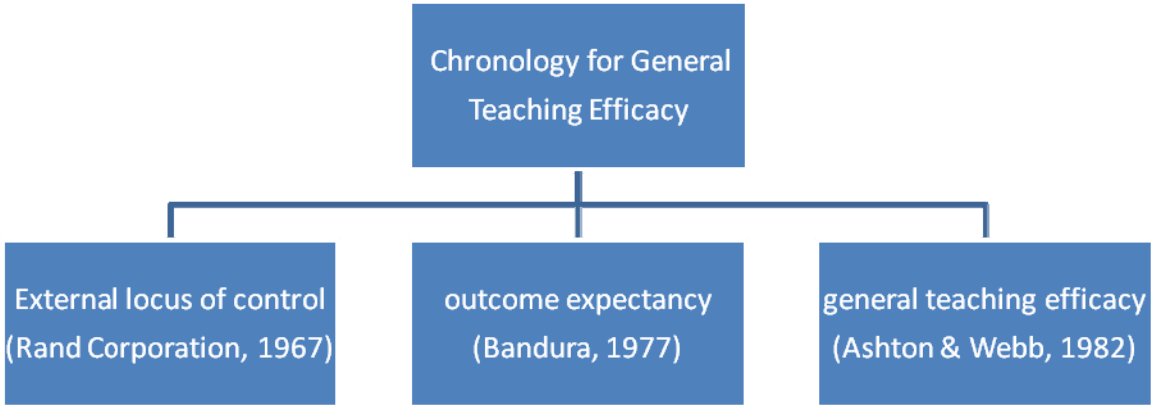
Third, is general teaching efficacy. In a given situation on the job, a person would have a general sense of what that profession's behavior would be. For example, in a situation of a classroom, the teacher would have a belief based upon "this is what teachers, in general, would do." Another example would be that a teacher would rationalize when faced with a failure situation, "No teacher would be able to successfully teach this group of students." General teaching efficacy— what teachers in general do— will become a major standard of behavior.

Fourth, is the personal teaching efficacy. When teachers gain experience and training, each teacher develops his own personal belief system about his own capabilities in specific situations. For example, a teacher personally develops his own sense of capabilities to motivate students, or to motivate different kinds of students, or to motivate students under different conditions. To expand on this, a teacher with high personal teaching efficacy might

say, “The other teachers can’t control these students. But I can.”

To be exact, for the purpose of this study, Bandura’s two dimensional construct will be utilized. Therefore, general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy will be studied. The chronology for general teaching efficacy is shown on the figure below.

Figure 1. Terminology for general teaching efficacy.



General Teaching Efficacy and External Factors

Ashton and Webb (1986) defined general teaching efficacy as teachers’ expectations that teaching can impact student learning. Similarly, Gibson and Dembo (1984) defined general teaching efficacy as a teacher’s belief that any teacher possesses competency to bring about change limited by factors external to the teacher. These factors external to the teacher are called external factors.

External Factors

External factors are those circumstances of students stemming from society or the environment such as home environment, family background, and parental influence. According to Guskey and Passaro (1993), the external factors that affect general teaching efficacy are considered social, demographic, or economic conditions. These external factors are outside the classroom and are thought of as something that the individual teacher has no control over. These external conditions may have a positive effect on student learning or emphasize the negative effect on student learning (Guskey & Pissaro, 1993). These external conditions may mold a teacher's belief because he has a sense that teachers in general display certain actions toward students based upon these external factors. The external factors of home background, socioeconomic status, and parental influences that greatly affect teacher efficacy tend to be grounded in poverty.

External Factor of Low Socioeconomic Status

Affecting teacher efficacy is the external factor of poverty. Poverty is a construct that is most frequently thought of in economic terms. In this situation, the United States Department of Education measures family poverty status using the National School Lunch Program eligibility criteria. Specifically, the U. S. Department of Education (2005) has maintained that forty-one percent of all 4th graders were eligible for free or reduced-price school lunch programs which is based on household incomes. To be eligible, the household income must be at or below 130 percent of the poverty level to qualify for free lunch. Students from families with incomes between 130 percent and 185 percent of the poverty level qualify for reduced-price lunch (U. S. Department of Education, National Center for

Education Statistics, 2006, 2009). Indeed, economic status has been a measurement of poverty and is an external factor that is beyond a teacher's control.

Furthermore, the external factor of poverty is found in all races and is caused by the earning of the parents, structure of the family, and the level of parents' education. One type of poverty is called generational poverty which is a construct in which two or more generations have lived in poverty. A second type of poverty is situational poverty which is caused by circumstances, such as divorce, death, or illness, and lasts for a shorter duration of time (Payne, 1998).

Either type of poverty affects the education of the child. According to Teachman, Paasch, Day, and Carver (1997), children are less likely to be high school graduates and procure fewer years of schooling the longer they live in poverty. To make matters worse, children in low-income situations are accompanied by attending bad schools (Zill, 1993). They are less likely to live in a good neighborhood with a high-quality school (Corcoran & Adams, 1997). In addition, the characteristics of neighborhoods and schools are likely to impact the opportunities or constraints when adolescents decide about the importance of continued education (Haveman, Wolfe, & Wilson, 1997). Consequently, low socioeconomic status creates long-term effects for the students as long as they are in the spiral of poverty.

Lewis (1996) suggested that children will generally not be able to break out of intergenerational cycles of poverty unless they acquire essential literacy skills. In the second place, children of poverty make lower scores on assessments of school achievement than children of other socioeconomic levels (Brooks-Gunn, Duncan, & Maritato, 1997). In other words, family income accounts for about half the difference in educational attainment of

children; and in addition, those who live in ongoing poverty seem to be at a greater risk for serious failure in school achievement (McLanahan, 1997). Hodgkinson (1995) said studies have found that low achievement is closely correlated with low socioeconomic status.

However, Payne (1998) maintained that poverty is seldom about low intelligence or ability. Besides, Payne suggested that schools are one of the few places where students can gain a vision of someone they want to be; have someone, such as an educator, who can who can teach them that they could live differently; or develop a talent or ability that provides opportunities for them to get out of and stay out of poverty. Furthermore, research presents a compelling argument that teachers have a greater impact on student achievement than any other educational variable (Learning Point Associates, 2005).

In 1964, the United States Office of Education studied public schools in order to determine the differences in educational opportunities. Because of the Civil Rights Act, race, religion, and national origin were to be studied. The results were published in the Coleman Report known as Equality of Education Opportunity Study of 1966. The Coleman Study concluded that the student socioeconomic level was the predictor of student academic performance, and that schools had little or no influence over a child's background or social factors. The Coleman Report basically showed that the socioeconomic status of students is the predictor for much of the variance in the school's student achievement (Coleman et al., 1966).

Ashton, Webb, and Doda (1982) have explained that virtually all teachers look at themselves as belonging to the middle class, and that teachers are biased in favor of middle-class values. Teachers, in general, believe in upward mobility, self-improvement, hard work,

self-discipline, delayed gratification, and personal accomplishment. Middle-class teachers favor students with middle-class values. In teaching students of the low socioeconomic class, teachers are faced with the realities and complexities of students whose behavior contradicts the middle-class values (Ashton, Webb, & Doda, 1982).

Additionally, Ashton, Webb, and Doda (1982) concluded that teachers who possess low efficacy do not share responsibility for the failure of students of low socioeconomic status and who are low-achieving students. When a teacher has a class dominated by low-achieving, low socio-economic level students, differences between high efficacy and low efficacy teachers exist.

For example, when a low efficacy teacher is confronted with low socioeconomic students, the teacher feels frustration and offense because the student has violated what one should think, do, and say. Low efficacy teachers remove themselves from the failure of these students by rationalizing that there is nothing that any teacher could have done. By making excuses that the problem is an external factor such as genetics, home situation, intelligence, poor parenting, unmotivated student, or undisciplined student, the teacher may be relieved of the stress associated with failure for not being successful with the student. These teachers often give up trying to teach the low-achieving students in their class (Ashton, Webb, & Doda, 1982).

On the other hand, high efficacy teachers view their professional role as to help the low socioeconomic level student overcome the obstacles that being poor has inflicted upon them. Teachers believe that they can teach and reach the student of poverty and have a hopeful perseverance to surmount the problems of poverty. The high efficacy teacher

maintains high academic standards and does not want the student to "fall through the cracks." According to Ashton, Webb, and Doda (1982), a teacher believes that students from poor home environments can learn.

Ashton, Webb, and Doda's study (1982) focused on low socioeconomic level of students and demonstrated additional conclusions. While low efficacy teachers dislike the poorer student, the high efficacy teacher has a genuine empathy for the poorer student. A low efficacy teacher would find the poor student repugnant, but the high efficacy teacher was able to build relationships with the students regardless of being poor or being low-achieving (Ashton, Webb, & Doda, 1982).

Furthermore, low efficacy has been attributed to teachers who have positions in low socioeconomic status schools (Litt & Turk, 1985). Adding to this problem is the necessity for educating all students and as emphasized, according to Hoy, Tartar, and Bliss (1990), socioeconomic level is the major acknowledged predictor of student achievement. The result would be reflective of a low socioeconomic level student population in a class compounded by having a low efficacy teacher who was supposed to have left no child behind in achievement.

According to Kurtz (2006), there was a significant relationship between teachers' beliefs and the socioeconomic status of students. The beliefs of academic optimism entail the components of teachers' sense of efficacy, teachers' trust in students, and parents, and teachers' sense of academic focus. Teaching classes of middle to high socioeconomic status, a teacher's sense of efficacy, trust, and academic focus is significantly higher than when the class is composed of low socioeconomic status level of students. Defining socioeconomic

status as the number of students qualifying for free/reduced lunch, Kurtz found that there was a significant negative relationship between socioeconomic status and academic optimism (efficacy, trust, and sense of academic focus). A significant correlation existed between teachers' sense of efficacy and the number of students qualifying for free and reduced lunch (Kurtz, 2006).

Moreover, Lee et al. (1991) conducted research on socioeconomic status of students and its respect to teacher efficacy. Lee's research suggested that teachers demonstrated higher efficacy in schools that were of high socioeconomic levels. This study found that if the academic level of students was higher in a lower socioeconomic level school, the teachers had higher teaching efficacy (Lee et al., 1991). Ross (1993) suggested that the higher levels of teacher efficacy are found in higher socioeconomic level schools.

Similarly, Ashton and Webb (1986) studied two types of schools to determine a relationship between school demographic factors and teacher self-efficacy. The results of their studies indicated that teachers had higher efficacy in high socioeconomic level schools (Ashton & Webb, 1986).

On the contrary, the research of Teddlie et al. (1989) showed that teacher characteristics that accounted for student achievement were beyond the socioeconomic status of the student and the school contextual factors. In effective schools, the teachers expressed the conviction that all students can and will learn their current grade level curriculum, starting immediately and mastering it that current year (Teddlie et al. 1989). Another testimony of the value of the importance of school and teacher effectiveness, Brookover et al. (1978) conducted a study of fourth grade student achievement and concluded that school

climate factors contributed to student achievement and these can reduce the negative effects of low socioeconomic status. They determined that school climate perceptions can explain the differences in academic achievement and that climate was not dependent on socioeconomic makeup.

Other studies have different findings when considering the degree of teacher efficacy found in schools according to the socioeconomic status of the students' families. An illustration is a study conducted by Pennamon (1991) who investigated the differences in teacher efficacy in low socioeconomic, medium socioeconomic, and high socioeconomic schools. Pennamon concluded that there were no significant differences in teaching efficacy or personal teaching efficacy in the low, medium, or high socioeconomic schools. The results indicated that the teacher efficacy in the school groups increased inversely with the socioeconomic level of the school. There was a significant disagreement among teachers in the low socioeconomic schools than the teachers in the high average and high socioeconomic level schools that poor students cannot be motivated to learn (Pennamon, 1991).

Then, Hannium (1994) conducted a study of urban, rural, and schools with varying socioeconomic levels. The results of the Hannium study indicated that socioeconomic status became more important than teaching efficacy in regards to student performance. Schools with high general teaching efficacy had higher levels of student performance; but the socioeconomic status of the school was a major predictor of success. Teacher efficacy was important, but socioeconomic status overshadowed the belief that education can overcome student poverty. Socioeconomic level was the only significant influence on student performance. However, in Hannium's study, a link was established between teacher efficacy,

climate, and student performance.

Loup (1994) studied 53 schools in 6 geographic regions in a large urban/suburban school district and surveyed 52 teachers. Efficacy was measured at the individual and organizational level. Results indicated that over time, teacher efficacy becomes less susceptible to school-related variables and become more stable with time. In this study, the highest reported levels of teacher efficacy were found in the lowest socioeconomic level schools. As a result, Loup indicated that effective schools can be understood in terms of teacher efficacy motivation (Loup, 1994).

Furthermore, Sofford (1995) conducted a study of demographic factors on efficacy. One variable analyzed was the socioeconomic level of students. The results demonstrated the likelihood that the socioeconomic status of students can negatively affect general teaching efficacy. The lower the socioeconomic level, the higher the ability level, the higher the teaching efficacy (Sofford, 1995).

Consequently, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) found that the teacher efficacy scale found in Gibson and Dembo's measure of efficacy was actually measuring an external factor that attributed the failure of students to the impact of home and family. Known as an external factor, this dominated the teacher's lack of responsibility by blaming the home environment (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Home Environment and Family Influence

The home environment and parental influence are external factors. That is, the impact of the home and family is considered to be outside the control of the teacher. A report named *Children and their Primary Schools* deduced that parental attitudinal factors accounted for

58% of the variance in student progress. This four-year longitudinal study highlighted the major effect that parents and their social class have on their children's achievement (Central Advisory Council for Education in England, 1967). Thus, teachers' beliefs in their capacities to involve parents in their children's education are important for measuring teacher efficacy. Of importance is the ability of teachers to generate parent involvement from parents of low socioeconomic levels (National Commission on Education, 1995).

Parental involvement in the child's education and the relationship with the teacher has shown to have beneficial effects if the parent is directly involved in school work. Such important tasks for parental involvement are to work with school to coordinate home-school student responsibilities, help the child with homework, conference with the teacher on student progress and problems, and provide feedback to the school (Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000). Thus, parental involvement is a critical determinant of teacher effectiveness.

For instance, Bandura has used questions for enlisting parental involvement as an area in order to measure teacher efficacy on "Bandura's Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale." The first question under the area of parent involvement is "How much can you do to get parents to become involved in school activities?" The second question is "How much can you assist parents in helping their children do well in school?" The third question is "How much can you do to make parents feel comfortable coming to school?" The purpose was to understand teachers' efficacy in this area by not making it too narrow nor too specific (Bandura, retrieved 2007).

Gibson and Dembo (1984) stated that the teacher's sense of teaching efficacy is a dimension called Factor 2 on their construct validation. Teaching efficacy is the belief in a

teacher to bring about change which has the external limiting factors of home environment, family background, and influences of the parents. Seven items have made up their construct for general teaching efficacy. The first measures whether a teacher believes that teachers are limited in what they can achieve because of the home environment greatly limiting the student's achievement. The second item determines the belief of the teacher as to the extent that teachers believe they can effectively discipline the students at school if the students are not disciplined at home. The third item measures the degree that the teacher believes that teachers can influence students compared to the amount that the students' home environments influence them. The fourth item determines teacher perceptions about teachers' ability to impact students through teaching as compared to the teaching of the family. The fifth item measures the extent that a teacher believes that teachers, in general, can overcome the experiences of the home by effective instruction. The sixth item measures the teacher's perception of the teachers' beliefs of how responsible or irresponsible parents are for helping their own children at home. The seventh measures the teacher's belief of the magnitude that teachers, in general, can teach all students successfully (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

Race/Ethnicity

Belief in the capability of teaching all students successfully regardless of the magnitude of parental influences includes efficacy of teachers instructing in the classroom which has an increasingly diverse student body. Spindler (1963) established that the teacher must have an awareness of how his culture influences not only what the individual teacher does, but how the students' cultures influence what they do, act, think, and observe. Burt and Sugawara (1992) indicated that teaching efficacy is related to perceptions of the teachers and

their interactions with students from international cultures (Burt & Sugawara, 1992). Furthermore, Bandura (1993) stated that teachers frequently have low efficacy beliefs in their ability to educate the minority students. In addition, these teachers have low expectations for the minority students (Bandura, 1993). Also, Ladson-Billings (1994) suggested that positive teacher efficacy beliefs with high expectations can result in successful instruction of minorities.

In the first place, a landmark study concerning family background, specifically student ethnicity and socioeconomic status that highlighted the importance of teacher efficacy was conducted by Armor et al. (1976). Armor et al. of the Rand Corporation was contracted by the Board of Education of the Los Angeles Unified School District to examine the Lost Angeles School Preferred Reading Program which had been implemented for three years. Studying 20 elementary schools located in low-income neighborhoods consisting of predominantly minority-group student makeup, Armor was to identify the aspects of school and classroom policies that were most successful, substantial, and consistent in raising the reading scores of inner-city Black and Mexican American students. The student bodies were approximately 50% Black and 50% Mexican American. By the fall of 1975, the predominantly Black and predominantly Mexican American enrollments made up about 80 percent of the total enrollment in the 20 schools studied. In a four-year longitudinal study, Armor et al. (1976) found that the teacher who felt efficacious did make a difference and made a significant difference for the 6^{th} grade reading scores. The gains in the standardized reading test scores were found to depend on the child's assigned teacher, class, and school. Teacher attributes of race/ethnicity, experience, college attended, undergraduate major, and

type of education were not found to have a correlation with the reading gains of the Black students. Armor concluded that teacher effects were significant contributors to gains in reading for both Black and Mexican American students that went beyond the effects of prior achievement and student background. The Rand Study is important because it refuted the Coleman Report which basically maintained that school differences were only slightly related to student achievement because student background and socioeconomic level were significant factors.

Pursuing this further, Armor's 1976 study was based upon measuring teacher efficacy with one statement: "When it comes right down to it, a teacher can't really do much because most of a student's motivation and performance depends on his or her home environment (p. 73)."

Finally, Armor concluded that the more efficacious teachers feel, the more their students progressed in reading achievement. The results demonstrated the importance of teacher efficacy in association with effective teaching and student achievement. Assuredly, teachers matter. For instance, teachers' sense of confidence contributed to reading achievement when teaching minority students. Teachers with high efficacy remain confident that their teaching produces positive results. Basically, the Rand Study resulted in findings that stressed the importance of teacher's considerable investment of energy and effort and commitment to teaching. No doubt, teacher attitudes are more important than student background characteristics. At this level, the most effective reading teachers possessed strong personal efficacy in teaching minority students. The most effective reading teachers believed that they could get through to children regardless of motivation or home circumstances. In

this situation, instead of ignoring the disadvantaged circumstances of their students, highly efficacious teachers cognitively were aware of these factors and sometimes used them to motivate students (Armor et al., 1976).

Equally important, Bandura (1986) suggested that efficacy is most influenced during the first year of instruction. On the other hand, teachers with more than ten years of experience and with high minority distribution had lower teacher efficacy than teachers of the same experience without high minority distribution. By comparison, teachers with less than ten years of experience and with high minority distributions had significantly lower teacher efficacy than teachers of the same experience without high minority distributions (Bandura, 1986).

Similarly, Taylor (2005) found that science teachers had lower efficacy with higher minority distributions than science teachers with lower minority distributions. Taylor's study involved 40 science teachers in middle and high schools to understand teacher efficacy as of critical concern in the minority achievement gap in science.

Also, Gilbert (1997) suggested that the majority of teachers who work in urban schools have had no and little experience before their first teaching assignments with working with students from minority populations. As well, Dukes (1999) explored a large culturally diverse school system and found that African-American male students were more likely to be referred to child study teams than other at-risk students. Dukes's study found that teaching efficacy was related to the student referral rate to child study teams (Dukes, 1999).

Acker (2006) found that African American males were referred to special education at a higher rate than the other ethnicities of Caucasian, Latino, and Asian males. Of course,

significant differences existed between high sense of teaching efficacy and low sense of teaching efficacy scores when African American males were referred to special education. In addition, African American males are referred to special education more than the students of other ethnicities (Acker, 2006).

In conclusion, students of diverse ethnicities, particularly African American students, have implications in regard to the teacher efficacy and their beliefs to successfully reach all students. Also, considered a sociodemographic characteristic, student ethnicity is an external factor. Other external factors that affect teacher efficacy are the demographic characteristics of the school itself. The school's location in an urban, suburban or rural setting is a demographic characteristic (Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000).

School Location

A demographic characteristic of a school that affects teacher efficacy is the school's location. Whether the school is in an urban location, suburban location, or rural location affects teacher efficacy. In this situation, research has provided relationships.
Sisk (1989) conducted a study of 49 beginning teachers and detected the relationship between teaching efficacy and the locale of schools. Sisk concluded that the locale of the school was found to be positively related to teacher efficacy (1989).

In a different study conducted to identify factors that accounted for differences in efficacy of teachers, Colton (1996) studied a large urban school district. Colton suggested that one factor that is significantly related to teacher efficacy is the place of residence.

Further studies examined more demographic topics. To examine the effects of climate and demographics, a study by Franklin (1989) examined urban and suburban elementary

settings and their relationships to teaching efficacy. Results of this study which occurred in Connecticut and in regards to teaching efficacy, urban teachers were more influenced by the impact of the students' backgrounds and socioeconomic levels. Suburban teachers believed that teachers were better able to overcome the influences of student background and socioeconomic level. Results revealed a significant difference existed between urban and suburban teaching efficacy. The study revealed that suburban teachers were able to overcome the effects of students' backgrounds and environments more so than their urban counterparts. School climate perceptions did not affect teacher efficacy perceptions. Franklin concluded that setting is an important factor in teacher efficacy. Teachers with high efficacy exist regardless of the school climate (Franklin, 1989).

Also, the importance of organizational culture and teacher efficacy were studied by Cancro (1992). Cancro studied the organizational culture of suburban and urban schools and 119 secondary teachers' beliefs on efficacy. However, the organizational culture of schools may be more critical than efficacy in developing autonomy.

The culture of urbanicity plays an important role in teacher efficacy (Payne, 1994). Derlin and Schneider (1994) indicated that urbanicity is a significant demographic influence on teacher efficacy. They found that urban teachers were more affected by school climate and work environment than suburban teachers (Derlin & Schneider, 1994).

Furthermore, Leyba (1994) studied an urban school district with changing student populations. The results indicated that teachers with increased levels of efficacy had personal characteristics which predisposed them to have higher expectations for student achievement. The teachers in the urban school district with higher efficacy demonstrated more positive

behaviors toward the students in their classrooms (Leyba, 1994).

In another study of 53 large urban and suburban school districts, Loup (1994) found that there was a linkage between teacher efficacy and learning environmental factors and school organizational effectiveness. Loup suggested that when schools have a history of school failures, the teacher efficacy and organizational efficacies become unitary.

Lack of high teacher efficacy is the finding of a study conducted in an urban school district. Hughes (2006) studied New York City public schools and determined teacher efficacy levels. There was a significant correlation between lower levels of self-reported stress and higher levels of efficacy in the urban schools. Hughes maintained that teachers quickly experience doubt about their abilities to teach urban students. Hughes found that teacher efficacy is a predictor of teacher stress while studying an urban school setting (Hughes, 2006). After one year of teaching, 30% of the teachers surveyed did not feel that they had been adequately prepared to teach students from differing backgrounds (Ashton, 1996).

Hence, teacher efficacy is related to the school's location. A school's geographic location determines whether it is urban, suburban, or rural. Because the teacher has no control over the location of the school, this demographic variable is considered an external factor. Another demographic variable which the teacher has no control over is the student enrollment number. For the purpose of this study, student enrollment number will be termed school size. School size, a demographic factor, is an external factor which can affect teacher efficacy.

School Enrollment Size

School size affects the quality of life found inside the school building. Initially, the size of school may impress upon the teacher common mindsets about teaching because of the culture found in that school (Conway, 1994). For instance, according to Fowler (1992), large school size compounds the attitudinal difficulties regarding school. By contrast, teachers experience more enhanced morale and show more positive satisfaction when they teach in small schools (Fouts, 1994). In small schools, personal loyalties and feelings of connectedness are more readily established (Ornstein, 1991). Moreover, small schools have been linked to more positive attitudes toward teaching (Stockard & Mayberry, 1992). Specifically, Lee and Loeb (2000) found that schools with fewer than 400 students were characterized by more positive teacher attitudes.

Apple (1987) suggested that the narrow roles found in large schools have negative effects, such as minimal commitment, on teachers. But in small schools, the diffused roles of teachers create stronger affiliation and commitment (Bryk, Lee & Holland, 1993). According to Meier (1995), small schools empower teachers as they assume more responsibilities from their diffused roles. Teaching in separate and autonomously downsized schools broadens teacher interests, talents, and convictions which promote personalized efforts in response to their specific student enrollment (Raywid, 1996). Similarly, in a study of Chicago Elementary Schools, Lee (2000) found that teachers had a more positive attitude about their responsibility for students' progress and that students learned more in small schools of fewer than 400 students. According to Lee and Smith (1996), students appear to achieve more in small schools. In addition, their study concluded that school size had a significantly negative

effect on teacher's responsibility levels for equitably distributing student learning (Lee & Smith, 1996).

Howley, Strange, and Bickel (2000) found that small schools are especially effective in increasing student achieving in low socioeconomic communities. For instance, small schools effectively create small learning communities in which teachers encourage and care about their students (Wasley et al., 2000). In small schools, the relationship between the teachers and students is a catalyst to the degree in which students become invested in their education (Riordan, 1997). Indeed, in a study conducted by Baron (1980), a statistically significant relationship was found between enrollment size and students' attitude toward school.

According to Rutter (1988), small schools possessed increases in the teacher's locus of control when compared to large schools. As school restructuring efforts are occurring, school downsizing evidence indicates that small schools enhance positive attitudes, enhance the development of teacher commitment, and enhance teacher efficacy (Raywid, 1996). In addition, Gibson and Dembo (1984) suggested that the school enrollment has an important relationship to teacher efficacy. Ashton and Webb (1986) indicated the significance of school size and its correlation with the two dimensions of teacher efficacy. Also, Newmann et al. (1989) suggested that the school demographics of total school enrollment as significantly related to teacher efficacy. Haydel (1997) studied two school districts in southeastern Louisiana and found a similar result (Haydel, 1997).

While an overwhelming number of studies have linked small school size to teacher efficacy, one study contradicted the findings that linked school size to teaching efficacy.

Sofford found that total school enrollment was not related to general teaching efficacy (Sofford, 1995).

School size as a potential predictor has not been clear because the meaning for what constitutes small, medium and large has varied. According to the Chicago Task Force, small schools should have an enrollment limit of 300 for an elementary school and an enrollment limit of 500 for a secondary school (Azcoitia, 1995). Williams (1990) maintains that an effective size for an elementary school is between 300 and 400 students. A high school's effective size is between 400 and 800 students. Cotton (1996) synthesized 103 studies and concluded that the most students that any school should have enrolled are between 400 and 500. Meier (1996) stated that 300-400 students in a school should be the optimal enrollment number. As a result of conducting a comprehensive study of schools, Goodlad (1984) recommended that no more than 300 students should be enrolled in elementary schools and no more than 600 students in high schools.

School size issues were examined by Cotton (1996). School size issues surfaced in the 1940s. In 1940, there were 117,108 school districts with about 200,000 public elementary and high schools in existence (Cotton, 1996). Over the next 50 years, consolidation decreased school districts by 87% down to 15,367 and decreased the number of schools to 62,037 by almost 69%, according to Cotton. As the school districts and number of schools were declining, the population of the United States was increasing by 70%. The factors that caused consolidation of schools were the: (1) movement to make schools more efficient; (2) push to produce more scientists to compete with the Soviet Union superior science program as evidenced by the Sputnik success; (3) measure to comply with the desegregation and special

entitlement programs of the 1960s; and, (4) as a response to James Conant's 1959 book *The American High School Today* which claimed that large schools create a cost effectiveness, provide more varied curriculum opportunities, and called for the elimination of small high schools (Cotton, 1996).

The response to "bigger is better" consolidation movement yielded small school research, effective schools research, at-risk research, and federally funded studies.
One of the first studies to question the efficiency of larger schools was conducted by Barker and Gump (1964). They studied schools ranging from 35 students to 2,287 students and found that students who participated in extracurricular activities were enrolled in schools with enrollments between 61 and 150 (Barker & Gump, 1964). Numerous other studies followed and dashed Conant's findings on the quality of education and cost-effectiveness, and concluded that academic achievement in small schools was equal or superior for students in general (Cotton, 1996).

Recent studies on school enrollment size appear to be related to academic achievement of students. Academic achievement has been shown to be negatively correlated to larger school enrollment (Hernandez, 2004). School enrollment size has been found to be a significant predictor on a school performance measure on a state's accountability system under No Child Left Behind (Rhodes, 2005). Overall, small school enrollment size appears to be related to a host of positive academic outcomes for students (McMillen, 2004).

The trend toward school consolidation has been long term. School reform of the 1980s had contradicting messages with respect to school size. Much school reform called for enriched academics plus the outputs of caring climates that were the hallmark of smaller

schools (Haller & Monk, 1988). In 1989, research by Berlin and Cienkus concluded that smaller schools appear to be better and cautioned that decisions should be based on the instructional needs of students instead of the organizational needs of the school (Berlin & Cienkus, 1989). The same year, Slater (1989) addressed the research on school size and proposed the theory that education, culture, structure, and scale are correlated. In 1990, Williams reviewed literature on school size and determined that small schools could be highly effective in producing quality education. Oakerson (1992) argued that smaller school districts may have access to greater "social capital" that compensate for the smaller shares of capital. Recent reform efforts have established "schools within schools" as alternatives to create "small school" results in schools judged too large (Monk, 1992).

Riordan (1997) suggested factors exist that are either encouraged or stifled by school size. The research conducted that has linked teacher factors to school size has been little and basically has covered teachers' attitudes toward their work, administration, or other teachers (Cotton, 1996). Further studies are important to determine how school size is linked to the day-to-day activities of teachers and students (Riordan, 1997).

Personal Teaching Efficacy

According to Ashton and Webb (1986), personal teaching efficacy is a teacher's belief that she has the skills and abilities to influence student learning. Guskey and Passaro (1993) distinguished personal teaching efficacy as representing the teacher's conviction of personal influence, power, positive impact upon student learning, and control over teaching practices and situations. The represented perceptions of internal control of the teaching and learning situation are under the direct control of the individual teacher (Guskey & Passaro,

1993).

According to Hoy and Woolfolk (1993), personal teaching efficacy and general teaching efficacy are relatively independent factors. Teachers may believe that they can have a powerful influence on students regardless of their social, demographic, or economic situation. Other teachers may believe that they cannot impact a student because of the social, demographic, or economic situation. A teacher can believe that education, in general, can impact students (general teaching efficacy), but that same teacher may not believe in his ability to reach students because student comes from a background in which he, as an individual teacher, has no control over. In other words, a teacher can have a high sense of general teaching efficacy and, at the same time, have a low sense of personal teaching efficacy (Haydel, 1997).

The terminology for personal teaching efficacy as it evolved is as follows:

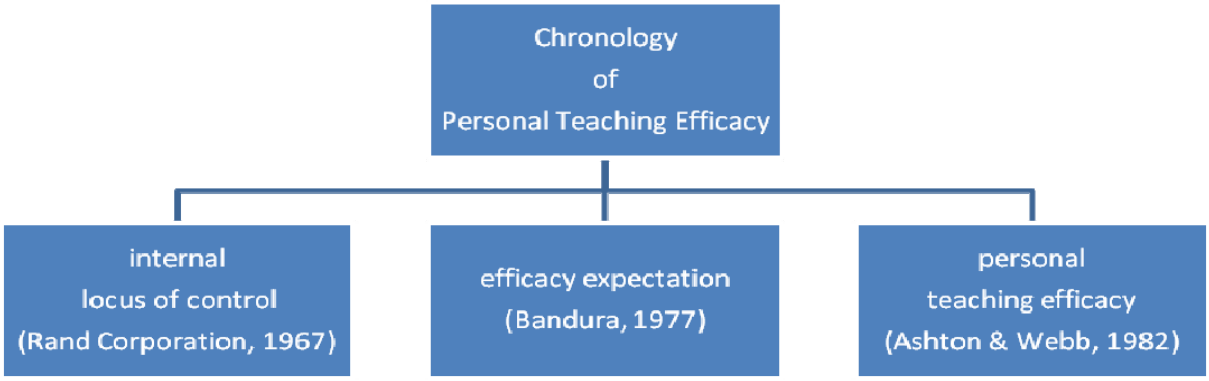


Figure 2. **Terminology of personal teaching efficacy.**

Professional self-efficacy has three roles. One role involves the task or technical

aspects of the job. The second role involves the interpersonal aspect of the job. The interpersonal aspect of self-efficacy is the belief in one's ability to work harmoniously with others. The third role involves the organizational role of the job. This is the belief that one can influence social or political forces within the organization (Vandenberge & Huberman, 1999). Mastery of these roles results in a developed high efficacy.

Bandura (1971) provided us with the conditions that cause high efficacy: direct mastery experiences, observations of models, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, emotional responsiveness, and self-regulative influences. Bandura stated that new patterns of behavior and cognition can be acquired through these experiences. According to Bandura, reinforcement can serve as informative and incentive functions. Self-efficacy can be built using response-strengthening capabilities and motivational experiences (Bandura, 1971).

Joyce and Showers (1980, 1982) provided contributions to building self efficacy. Showers (1980) suggested providing memories of past accomplishments of performance, providing opportunities to see behavior being modeled, giving verbal encouragement, and providing supports for engaging in a behavior. According to Saffold (2005), mentoring can build self-efficacy in teachers. Self-efficacy in teachers is often based on the level of education, whether that teacher is considered highly qualified, and the number of years teaching that the individual has acquired.

Level of Education

A teacher's level of education has been found to be a predictor of teacher efficacy. These studies have been conducted by Agne (1991); Agne, Greenwood, and Miller (1994); Colton (1996); Darling-Hammond,Wise, and Klein (1995); Greenwood et al. (1993);

Gschwend (1999); Hoy and Woolfolk (1990, 1993); Morey (1996); Sandy (1988); and, Slack-Williams (1996).

To examine a theory that school environment was more important than other variables of teacher development, Sandy (1988) investigated school climate and teacher variables that included teacher education. Studying 266 secondary teachers in 8 Republic of Trinidad and Tobago schools, the results of the study found that efficacy was predicted by teacher education (Sandy, 1988). According to research, teachers who hold a graduate degree are more likely to have a higher sense of teaching efficacy than those who do not hold graduate certification or advanced degrees (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990).

Also, Agne (1991) studied whether Teachers of the Year were different from inservice teachers in respect to teacher efficacy. Results of the study concluded a significant difference between high teacher efficacy for Teachers of the Year and inservice teachers. Teachers of the Year held significantly more masters degrees or higher degrees than the teachers considered inservice (Agne, 1991).

In addition, Agne, Greenwood, and Miller (1994) found that teachers high in efficacy were more likely to seek out additional graduate work. Teachers possessing a greater number of master's degrees or higher were teachers who were higher in teaching efficacy. The results of this study found that the highest degree earned was a significant predictor between teacher of the year and in-service teachers' sense of efficacy (Agne, Greenwood, and Miller, 1994).

In another study of secondary teachers who work in the fields of regular and special education teachers, Slack-Williams (1996) explored the relationships of self-efficacy to certain factors. Slack-Williams found that the teacher's level of education was positively

related to the teacher's self-efficacy.

Furthermore, Colton (1996) conducted a study of 510 elementary teachers to identify factors that accounted for differences in efficacy. The certification level was significantly related to differences in teacher efficacy (Colton, 1996).

Similarly, Gschwend (1999) found that personal teaching efficacy was moderated by the number of educational degrees held. These scores increased slightly based on the educational degrees held. Teachers with several master's degrees or a doctorate degree scored the highest, while teachers with BA or BS degrees scored the lowest. Those teachers who reported the highest educational level had increased classroom performance goals. Those teachers who possessed highest school performance goals were also the teachers who had the highest educational levels. Gschwend concluded that teachers with advanced degrees had higher personal teaching efficacy levels (Gschwend, 1999).

Furthermore, Hoy and Woolfolk (1993) examined specific demographic factors and their relationship to teaching efficacy. In this study the sense of personal teaching efficacy was found to be predicted by level of education.

A study conducted by Greenwood et al. (1993) compared the educational level of teachers and its relationship to teacher efficacy. A significant correlation was found between educational level and personal teaching efficacy in this study (Greenwood et al., 1993).

Similarly, Darling-Hammond, Wise, and Klein (1995) found that the level of college degree was positively correlated with personal science teaching efficacy. They stated that bachelor's, master's, or doctorate degrees were more effective in the classroom and that teachers with advanced degrees provided a higher quality of instruction.

Furthermore, Morey (1996) studied the relationships among student science achievement, elementary science teaching efficacy, and school climate. The results demonstrated that teachers have a lower sense of personal science teaching efficacy when they hold a bachelor's degree and not a higher degree (Morey, 1996).

Fewer studies have determined that the educational level of the teacher was not related to teacher efficacy. Studies of this finding have been conducted by Egyed (2000), Franklin (1989), Safran (1985), and Sofford (1995).

Egyed's (2000) study concludes that the educational level of teachers did not significantly correlate with teachers' personal teaching efficacy or general teaching efficacy. Comparisons were made across teachers in different educational and training levels to explore how the groups of teachers differed in teacher efficacy and personal teaching efficacy (Egyed, 2000).

Additionally, the same results were found by Safran (1985). No significant relationships were found between the teacher's level of education and teacher efficacy. The degrees of bachelor's, master's, post-master's, and doctoral degrees were explored.

Also, in a study which examined teacher educational level, Franklin (1989) found no significant differences between the demographic variable of teacher's level of education when the setting was controlled and compared to personal or teaching efficacy. The level of education had no effect on the teacher's sense of efficacy regardless of the setting in this same study. Also, there were no significant differences due to teacher educational levels and personal teaching efficacy or teaching efficacy (Franklin, 1989).

In a similar study, Sofford (1995) explored certification and degree level and their

relationships to both dimensions of efficacy. Results of the study did not demonstrate a correlation between certification and degree level with general teaching efficacy or personal teaching efficacy (Sofford, 1995).

One study found a difference in the contribution of teacher's level of education and its relationship to teacher efficacy when considered alone or in combination with other demographic factors. This study was conducted by Madden-Szeszko (2000).

Madden-Szeszko (2000) investigated teacher efficacy and its relationship to demographic variables, including teacher level of education. By itself, the teachers' level of education did not significantly predict general teaching efficacy. However, combined with other variables of years of experience, hours in professional development, and teaching as a career, the level of education did contribute to general teaching efficacy when in combination with the other variables and can significantly predict general teaching efficacy (Madden-Szeszko, 2000).

In summary, a majority of studies have determined that the teacher's level of education is significantly related to higher teacher efficacy. It appears that there is a greater likelihood that teachers gain efficacy as they gain higher degrees. In particular, a number of studies have linked teacher's level of education as significantly related to higher personal teacher efficacy. Fewer studies have found no significant linkages between teacher level of education and teacher efficacy. One study found that when in combination with other factors the level of education did significantly predict teaching efficacy.

Teacher Certification (Highly Qualified vs. Not-Highly Qualified)

Teacher licensure is considered a predictor of teacher effectiveness. Evertson, Hawley, and Zlotnick (1985) reviewed the research on the characteristics of effective teacher preparation programs for the National Commission of Excellence in Teacher Education and suggested that teacher licensure predicted the quality of the teacher (Evertson, Hawley & Zlotnick, 1985).

No Child Left Behind (2002) requires that all teachers hold certification in the subjects they teach. Section 1119 of Public Law 107-110 mandates that all public elementary and secondary teachers now hired to teach in core academic subjects are to be highly qualified. This federal legislation includes a highly qualified requirement in order to be "a successful classroom teacher." Thus, the importance of teachers to hold appropriate certification is manifested.

The emphasis of educational reform is that of teacher quality. According to Legler (2002), access to a qualified teacher is an important factor that determines student achievement. Determining certified and non-certified teacher quality has been conducted in a number of studies. The impact of alternative certification has been surveyed and results indicated that alternative certified teachers were rated as equal or above other newly hired teachers in terms of quality (North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, 2002).

However, other studies have examined the relationship between teacher efficacy and alternative vs. traditionally certified teachers. The following studies have found no significant differences between the two groups.

According to a study by Guyton, Fox, and Sisk (1991), there were no significant

differences in efficacy between traditionally certified teachers and alternately certified teachers. No significant differences were discovered between either group after the first month of teaching, fifth month of teaching, and the end of the year. No significant differences were found in both general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy between the traditional certified teachers and the alternately certified teachers (Guyton, Fox, & Sisk, 1991).

In a similar study, Tien (1996) compared alternately certified teachers and traditionally certified teachers and their relationship to teacher efficacy. The results of Tien's study of a large urban school district that included 30 teachers of each group found that there were no significantly statistical differences in the teaching efficacy of traditionally certified teachers and alternately certified teachers (Tien, 1996).

Additionally, Groves (1998) conducted a study comparing the self-efficacy of 28 certified first year teachers and 10 alternately certified teachers. Groves found no significant differences between their teaching efficacy or personal teaching efficacy levels at the beginning of the year to the end of the same school year. There were larger differences in the average between the beginning of the school year to the end of the school year for the regular certified teachers than for alternately certified teachers. The teacher efficacy was consistent throughout the school year for the certified teachers, but teacher efficacy varied for the alternately certified teachers. Certified and alternately certified teachers were higher for personal teaching efficacy than for teaching efficacy. Groves suggested that the results at the beginning of the year were a good predictor for both groups of teachers with respect to personal teaching efficacy and general teaching efficacy. Groves concluded that experience

from the beginning of the school year to the end of the school year did not change the teaching efficacy (Groves, 1998).

Finding similar results, Isbell (2000) studied the influence of teacher certification and teacher efficacy in a California school district which explored 193 elementary teachers in their first and second year of teaching. The results demonstrated that non-credentialed teachers scored slightly below fully credentialed teachers in reading. This study explored teacher certification and its impact on teaching efficacy in reading and math using a sample that included teachers on emergency or pre-intern permits, intern credentials, preliminary or multiple subjects credentials of first, second, and third year teachers; Isbell's results indicated that teaching credentials have no relationships to personal teaching efficacy levels. No significant correlations were found between the credential statuses of teachers on any individual questions and, no significant relationships were found between the mean scores of the teacher efficacy survey and the teacher's credential status (Isbell, 2000).

Efficacy and Teacher's Years of Experience

Brophy and Good (1974) determined that teachers' years of experience and their attitudes and beliefs can influence teacher effectiveness and student achievement. This conclusion was echoed by Darling-Hammond (1999). More recently, other researchers, including Goldhaber and Anthony (2003), have concluded the same.

Ross (1993) stated that teaching experience affects personal teaching efficacy. He conducted a review of teacher efficacy literature and stated that experience and efficacy do matter. Research was conducted in a high school setting to explore the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and specified factors. Slack-Williams (1996) found that teacher self-

efficacy was positively related to the length of time in teaching. Colton (1996) explored a large urban school district to determine variables that accounted for differences in teacher efficacy. The results of this study found that the teachers' years of experience was a factor (Colton, 1996). Ross et al. (1996) suggested that teacher efficacy was affected by teaching experience.

Novice Teachers and Teacher Efficacy. Research also suggested that when a teacher begins teaching— as a student teacher and again as a first year teacher— the teacher suffers a decrease in the dimension of general teaching efficacy and an increase in personal teaching efficacy. Studies conducted by Ashton, Webb and Doda (1982), Walker and Richardson (1993), Safran (1985), Blasé (1985), and Hoy and Woolfolk (1990; 1993) support this finding.

Ashton, Webb, and Doda (1982) suggested that teachers in training had higher efficacy scores than teachers with more experience. They indicated that there is something in the social-psychological milieu of the institution that creates a decline in the efficacy of many, but not all, teachers. They suggested that teacher efficacy was related to the procedures by which teachers adapt to what is expected of them in their professional role (Ashton, Webb, & Doda, 1982).

Walker and Richardson (1993) stated that a beginning teacher's sense of efficacy changes over the school year for beginning teachers. Their study discovered that at the end of the first actual teaching school year, teachers had lower efficacy than they did during their student teaching (Walker & Richardson, 1993). Safran (1985) conducted a study and found that less experienced teachers had higher personal teaching efficacy. Blasé (1985) suggested

that a sense of efficacy diminishes as the school year progresses in beginning teachers with a high sense of efficacy.

Hoy and Woolfolk (1990) indicated that new teachers have a decrease in their teaching efficacy after their first real classroom interactions. Concurrently, new teachers have a growth in their personal teaching efficacy (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990, 1993). Hoy and Woolfolk indicated that the general teaching efficacy of new teachers they studied declined from when they began their student teaching. As the new teachers gained experience, there was an increase in their personal teaching efficacy but a decrease in their general teaching efficacy (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993).

Years of Experience and Gains in Personal Teaching Efficacy. As teachers gain more years of experience in teaching, there is some likelihood that they gain personal teaching efficacy. The first years of teaching shape a teacher's efficacy beliefs (Ross, 1994) and then teaching efficacy grows as teachers remain in their profession. There tends to be a drop in teacher efficacy during the first few years of teaching, and then personal teaching efficacy grows concurrently as general teaching efficacy decreases as teaching experience occurs. Teaching experience up to a certain point creates a growth in personal efficacy, according to Gibson and Brown (1982), Glickman and Tamashiro (1982), Howat (1990), and Soodak and Podell (1997).

Ross (1994) stated that teacher efficacy is most changeable in the first part of a teacher's career when he or she was exposed to new teaching methods in workshops. Ross suggested that experienced teachers have more set efficacy beliefs.

According to Soodak and Podell (1997), a teacher gains a sense of efficacy with years

of teaching experience. In a study which examined first and second year teachers, Soodak and Podell found that these teachers had the lowest levels of personal teaching efficacy than preservice teachers or teachers with six years of experience. Personal teaching efficacy grew with more experience. There was no increase in general teaching efficacy as the teacher gained more experience (Soodak & Podell, 1997).

Howat (1990) conducted a study on self-concept development of student-perceived competence and efficacy of 65 elementary teachers. The results found a small positive correlation between personal teaching efficacy and teachers' years of experience (Howat, 1990).

Glickman and Tamashiro (1982) studied first-year, fifth-year, and former teachers and the relationship to efficacy. Former teachers rated themselves significantly lower in personal efficacy. Former teachers tended not to think of themselves as being able to make a difference in their students' lives when compared to the first-year and fifth-year teachers. The first-year and fifth-year teachers showed significantly higher efficacy scores and thought of themselves as being able to make a difference in their students' lives. When the new teachers began to feel that their teaching experience was not new, their efficacy levels tended to drop. Low teaching efficacy increased new teachers' attrition rates. Teachers who left the teaching profession had a significantly lower sense of efficacy compared to the first or fifth year teachers (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1982).

Teacher Efficacy and Increasing Years of Experience. Several experts argued that teacher efficacy decreases as years of experience increases, and this decrease is due to their experiences and situations related to the teaching, as well as personal circumstances. Gibson

and Brown (1982), Gibson and Dembo (1984), Dembo and Gibson (1985), Armister (1989), and Gorrell and Hwang (1995) conducted studies that substantiated this conclusion.

Gibson and Brown (1982) suggested that teacher efficacy was lowered with years of experience. Their study concluded that moderate negative correlations existed between teacher efficacy and the teachers' years of experience. They suggested that years of experience works against developing a teacher's sense of efficacy. As they become more proficient teachers, they also develop beliefs that proficient teachers will not necessarily enable a student to achieve academically (Gibson & Brown, 1982).

Gibson and Dembo (1984) stated that teaching efficacy was situationally specific. They suggested that teaching efficacy was related to organizational factors of schools. Gibson and Dembo suggested that teaching efficacy and the teacher's years of experience were correlated. Dembo and Gibson (1985) indicated that teaching efficacy varies with experience. They believe that something in teaching works against a teacher's sense of efficacy as the teacher gains experience (Dembo & Gibson, 1985). Ashton and Webb (1986) suggested that efficacy decreases with teacher's years of experience.

Armister (1989) studied the extent to which teacher efficacy was perceived by mentor teachers in San Diego. Armister found that the number of years of teaching experience demonstrated a weak negative correlation in personal teaching efficacy. As the years of teaching increased, the teachers tended to have a decrease in personal efficacy. This study indicated that belief in one's own skills and ability to affect student achievement declines as teachers gain more teaching experience. Teaching efficacy was not significantly related to the number of years of teaching experience (Armister, 1989).

Gorrell and Hwang (1995) found that a teacher's years of experience and training increases improvement in personal teaching efficacy. In addition, as the general teaching efficacy grew, the personal teaching efficacy declined and was negatively associated with general teaching efficacy levels (Gorrell & Hwang, 1995).

Veteran Teachers and Teacher Efficacy

Studies have demonstrated that veteran teachers experience a diminished sense of general teaching efficacy. The studies were conducted by McLaughlin (1991), Greenwood et al. (1993), Wander (1997), Hoy and Woolfolk (1993), Ross (1994), Sofford (1995), and Haydel (1997).

McLaughlin (1991) stated that older teachers generally experience a diminished sense of efficacy. He declared that veteran teachers over the age of 40 demonstrate a substantially lower sense of efficacy than their teaching colleagues who were younger (McLaughlin, 1991). Greenwood et al. (1993) explored teacher efficacy and revealed that personal teaching efficacy held a significant and small correlation to years of experience. General teaching efficacy was negatively correlated to teachers' years of experience (Greenwood et al., 1993).

In a similar study, Wander (1997) found that teachers with the most years of teaching experience and with the higher number of years of teaching at the secondary level resulted in lower teaching efficacy. Years of teaching at the secondary level was found to be statistically significant to lower levels of teaching efficacy (Wander, 1997).

This was also stated by Ross at the 1994 annual meeting of the Canadian Society for the Study of Education. Ross maintained that teaching efficacy is an outcome of the teacher's personal traits, such as teaching experience. Ross maintained that teaching efficacy declined

with the teachers' years of experience. There was evidence that general teaching efficacy decreased with experience in the teaching profession. However, there was evidence that as the teachers' years of experience increases, the personal teaching efficacy increases, according to Ross (June 1994). Hoy and Woolfolk (1993) suggested that personal teaching efficacy was related to years of experience. The findings of their study demonstrated that general teaching efficacy was correlated with the teacher's years of experience.

Sofford (1995) examined teacher demographic data and teacher efficacy. Sofford's study determined that the teachers' years of experience was significantly correlated with teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy. The teachers' years of experience was positively correlated with personal teaching efficacy. The more years of experience, the more confidence the individual teacher had about reaching students. An inverse relationship existed between teaching experience and teaching efficacy. The more years of teaching experience, the higher the confidence that all students can learn. The less experience the teacher has, the higher the confidence that all children can learn. Teachers' years of experience was significantly correlated with personal teaching efficacy. The teachers' years of experience were significantly correlated with teaching efficacy. The results of the study suggested that experience can positively affect personal teaching efficacy and teaching efficacy. Relationships at the individual level were found to be significant in results. Personal teaching efficacy was significantly related to teachers' years of experience. Higher personal efficacy teachers had 20 or more years of teaching experience. The relationship of teaching efficacy was found with less years of teaching experience. Teachers with 20 or more years of experience had lower teaching efficacy. The more years and experience related to less

confidence that teachers had that all children can learn regardless of external factors. Years of experience was considered as a predictor of efficacy (Sofford, 1995).

Similarly, Hebert, Lee, and Williamson (1998) stated that a teacher's years of experience influences a teacher's general sense of efficacy and has a developmental effect. The results of this study yielded that years of experience in a school gives a teacher greater knowledge the more the teacher has experience in that school. This study compared teacher efficacy with preservice and experienced teachers (Hebert, Lee, & Williamson, 1998).

Egyed (2000) conducted a study to determine if the number of years of teaching experience would increase teaching efficacy. Differences in teaching efficacy were compared across teachers to determine if a possible correlation existed between years of experience and sense of efficacy. A regression analysis demonstrated that personal teaching efficacy was significantly correlated to years of teaching experience. This study concluded that a small but significant correlation was found between teachers' years of experience and teachers' sense of efficacy. The number of years of teaching was positively correlated to efficacy, mostly due to the personal teaching efficacy correlation (Egyed, 2000).

Thus, Haydel (1997) concluded that a significant correlation existed between general teaching efficacy and the teachers' years of experience. Teachers' sense of efficacy lowers as they remain in the teaching profession longer. This study concluded that teaching efficacy varied as a function of teachers' years of experience (Haydel, 1997).

In addition, Blazevski (2006) established teaching experience as a predictor of teaching efficacy for supporting motivation. Years of teaching experience was a significant negative predictor of teacher efficacy for supporting student motivation, according to the

results of the study. In this study, years of teaching experience had been expected to be a positive predictor of instruction (Blazevski, 2006).

Additionally, the results of a study conducted by Hughes (2006) examined stress and teacher efficacy and found that teacher efficacy is a strong predictor of teacher stress. Hughes stated that younger teachers may be more critical of their job performance and that experience may help to increase teacher efficacy. Efficacy will increase as teachers become more experienced (Hughes, 2006).

In a different study, Madden-Szeszko (2000) conducted a study on the variables that contributed to teacher efficacy. The years of teaching experience, level of education, hours in professional development, and teaching as a career, when considered together, were significant predictors of general teaching efficacy. The teachers' years of experience did not significantly predict personal teaching efficacy and did not, by itself, significantly correlate with general teaching efficacy (Madden-Szeszko, 2000).

Other studies that explored teacher efficacy did not find significant relationships between efficacy and teachers' years of experience. Isbell (2000), Showers (1981), Cavers (1988), Gorman (1997), Franklin (1989), Sarabun (1995), and the National Center for Educational Statistics (1990) have demonstrated that teacher efficacy was not significantly linked to teachers' years of experience.

According to Isbell (2000), the years of experience was not correlated to the personal teaching efficacy levels. No significant differences existed between the first and second year teachers and teacher efficacy in this study (Isbell, 2000).

Similarly in a study that explored self-efficacy as a predictor of teacher participation

in school decision making, years of experience did not significantly affect the formation of feelings of efficacy (Showers, 1980). Shower's study applied the efficacy theory of Bandura that included demographic characteristics and organizational characteristics of school settings.

Cavers's study (1988) also researched the relationship between teacher efficacy and specific teacher demographic characteristics to provide information that could be used in school improvement planning. This study found that teacher experience was not significantly related to teacher efficacy (Cavers, 1988).

Finding similar results, Gorman (1997) concluded that the teachers' years of experience showed few significant relationships with efficacy. The effect of the teachers' years of experience did not significantly impact teacher efficacy. Gorman concluded that years of experience was not a significant predictor of teacher efficacy in this study (Gorman, 1997).

Also, Franklin (1989) examined years of teaching and its relationship to both teacher efficacy and personal efficacy. In this study of 350 elementary teachers in Connecticut, no significant differences were found among the teacher years of experience and personal teaching efficacy, as well as, teacher efficacy. Regardless of the setting, the teacher's sense of efficacy was not affected by the demographic variable of teacher's years of experience (Franklin, 1989).

Sarabun (1995) conducted a study to determine the relationship between personal teaching efficacy and teaching efficacy and number of years of teaching experience, as well. Results indicated no relationship existed. Sarabun suggested that there may be a relationship

of context variables and teaching efficacy. The relationship may be different with different teacher years of experience.

In addition, the National Educational Longitudinal Survey conducted in 1990 explored powerful predictors of efficacy. The National Center for Educational Statistics suggested that a teacher's years of experience does not play as important a role as the relationships between teachers and students (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1990).

Historical Background of Reading Instruction

A "reading war" has been going on since the 1960s between two camps. One camp is the "whole language" movement. The other camp is the "phonics" movement. Historically, reading education has used a wide range of research to make determinations whether certain instructional practices should be adopted to improve reading. Basically, reading experts have used descriptive-interpretive, correlational, and experimental research that lay claims to particular warrants to guide reading educators in the decision making regarding the curriculum and instruction of reading, but these warrants differ markedly (National Reading Panel, 2000).

Under No Child Left Behind Act of 2002 and the strengthened version of No Child Left Behind Act of 2007, a component that addressed reading was called Reading First. Reading First was drafted with the intent of incorporating scientifically based reading research on what works in teaching reading to improve and expand K-3 reading programs to address concerns about student reading achievement (Calfee, 1977; McCallion, 2007). Evidence-based reading research identified five essential components of effective reading

instruction.

These five essential components are phonemic awareness, phonics instruction, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension (National Reading Panel, 2000). Both the whole language camp and the phonics camp are in agreement that these five components are considered critical in reading, but the main difference lies in the degree of emphasis of each and how each component should be taught (Ellis, Wheldall, & Braman, 2007; Lyon, 2003; Presley, 2005).

A major question to be asked is, "What is the value that teachers place on the various components of curriculum and instruction- the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers about their reading curriculum and instruction?" According to Cavanaugh & Dellar (1997), an element that affects school improvement includes teacher efficacy. Efficacy also has been related to teachers' willingness to implement innovations (Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly, Zellman, 1977; Guskey, 2002; Smylie, 1988).

According to Ashton and Webb (1986), efficacy beliefs of teachers are related to their instructional practices and to various student outcomes. Teachers with high efficacy attitudes tended to concentrate on academic instruction, and their students had higher achievement test scores than did students of teachers with low efficacy attitudes (Ashton, Webb, & Doda, 1983; England, 2006). The end result of any reading/language arts curriculum and instruction is the outcome it produces on student learning.

Reading First, an education initiative to address the critical factor of early-literacy skills, was proposed by President George W. Bush in January, 2001. The focus on phonemic awareness, phonics, guided-oral reading, vocabulary, and comprehension strategies stemmed

from the National Reading Panel Report of 2000 (Manzo, 2001). Other reading initiatives prior to this had not been successful (Manzo, Jun 2002, Oct 2002).

On September 25, 2001, the federal education conference committee approved the Reading First funding for $900 million, thus tripling its funding (Nather, 2001). A month later, the International Reading Association, a non-partisan professional organization, presented its statement supporting the Reading First initiative. This statement expressed the belief that effective and comprehensive programs of reading instruction could operate and be funded under this initiative (International Reading Association, 2001).

Congress passed the ESEA on December 13, 2001. Included was the Reading First Initiative (Connecting Education and Careers, Feb 2002). President Bush proposed a $1 billion increase for the budget of the Reading First program for the new fiscal year that was to begin October 1 (Leavitt, Watson, Loey, Vergano, Nichols, & Watson, 2002). Rod Paige, National Secretary of Education at that time, stated that the resources were for children who are never taught to read and may never perform at their full potential. Reading First's first year was 2002, and recipients received funding for the next five years (Angelo, 2002).

In 2006, Reading First Impact Study showed that students benefited from this program. A statewide initiative called K-3 Tiered Reading Model grew out of the Reading First initiative and has spread throughout all school districts in West Virginia. An essential ingredient of the K-3 Tiered Reading Model is the core reading program.

Components of any reading curriculum and instruction include phonemic awareness, phonics instruction, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. The components are essential for the core reading programs.

Phonemic Awareness

The first key characteristic of core reading programs is the emphasis on teaching phonemic awareness. According to the National Reading Panel's meta-analysis of phonemic awareness instruction, the findings indicate that phonemic awareness instruction is significantly better than other forms of training in helping students acquire and apply phonemic awareness in reading and spelling. The effects are larger when students receive explicit, focused instruction on 1 or 2 phonemic awareness skills rather than when taught in a combination of 3 or more phonemic awareness skills. Phonemic awareness instruction is a key component in a reading program and contributes significantly to the effectiveness of beginning reading and spelling instruction (Bus & van ljzendoom, 1999; National Reading Panel, 2000; Troia, 1999). Explicit instruction in the phonological structure of words improves reading instruction (Adams, 1990; Ehri, Nunes, Stahl, & Willows, 2001; Juel, 1988). Reading classrooms explicitly teach phonemic awareness as an essential component of reading in the kindergarten and first grade levels (WV Department of Education Technical Assistance Guide, 2005).

Phonics Instruction

The second key characteristic of a core reading program is phonics instruction that begins in the second half of kindergarten and is mastered no later than the middle of the second grade. Phonics instruction in the reading classroom is to be systematic and explicit (Becker & Gersten, 1982; Foorman, Francis, Fletcher, Schatschneider, & Methta, 1998). Explicit and systematic phonics is superior to no program or a non-systematic approach (National Reading Panel, 2000). Methods in reading classrooms should provide intense

instruction in the structure of oral language and the connections between phonemes and spellings (WV Department of Education Technical Assistance Guide, 2000).

Fluency

Fluency instruction, the third key characteristic of a core reading program, should begin in the first grade, receive attention through the third grade, and be an ongoing part of instruction throughout schooling (WV Department of Education Technical Assistance Guide, 2005). Fluency is to be assessed through timed reading which is how many words a student can orally read correctly from a list in one minute (Fuchs, Fuchs, Hosp, & Jenkins, 2001). Core reading programs use guided oral reading as opposed to independent silent reading because of the National Reading Panel's report which suggests the importance of explicit compared to implicit instructional approaches for improving reading fluency (National Reading Panel, 2000).

Vocabulary

A key classroom characteristic of core reading programs is the provision of adequate definitions and illustrations of how words are used in natural sounding contexts (Anglin, 1993; Tyler & Nagy, 1989). Direct vocabulary instruction is to provide students with repeated exposure to specific vocabulary in both literary text and content-specific text. Core reading programs promote strategies for indirect vocabulary acquisition. These include how to use reference aids, word analysis skills, and use of context clues (Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, NIH, DHHS, 2001).

Comprehension

A key characteristic of core reading programs is that optimum comprehension results are gained in large group instruction, so that students support each other's learning (Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2001; Beck, McKeown, Sandora, Kucan, & et al., 1996; Klingner, Vaughn, & Schumm, 1998). The use of a core reading program is critical to the reading classroom. This core reading program is used daily and is systematic and sequential. Explicit instruction is the critical method of instruction. Instruction is to consist of modeling, demonstration, guided practice with feedback, scaffolding of instruction, independent practice, and application. Teachers are to follow the teachers' manuals explicitly (WV Department of Education Technical Assistance Guide, 2005). The seven strategies that are to be taught include monitoring, cooperative learning, use of organizers, question answering, question generating, story structure, and summarization. The meta-analysis of the National Reading Panel did not determine that sustained silent reading increases student achievement in comprehension (National Reading Panel, 2000).

Four Reading Program Types

The Oregon Reading First Center reviewed the four reading program types that have been specified in this study. The panel scored each program according to the reading program's instructional sufficiency for each essential element: phonemic awareness; phonics instruction; fluency; vocabulary; and, comprehension. This section describes the areas of each reading program in which the Oregon Reading First Center (2004) gave top scores or top percentages in its assessment for sufficiency when the four programs are compared.

Harcourt Reading Program

According to Oregon Reading First Curriculum Review, the Harcourt Reading Program had the highest percentage for the first grade level's phonics instruction of high priority items. Specifically, the highest points were awarded to the systematic instruction from simple word types to more complex word types, as well as, the teacher guided practice in controlled word lists and successfully connecting of text to the currently learned skill.

The Harcourt Reading Program was also given the highest percentage point by the Oregon Reading First Center for its sufficiency for the teaching of fluency on the first grade level for the high priority items. This means that instruction of passage reading occurs quickly after students have read a specified number of words correctly. Also, teachers work to have students reading 60 words a minute by the end of the first grade. Teachers provide much practice and materials to develop fluency on the appropriate difficulty level.

The Oregon Reading First Center (2004) assessed the Harcourt Reading Program third grade level's phonics instruction as being 100% sufficient. Teachers instruct in decoding strategies using word structures, such as prefixes and suffixes. Furthermore, teachers instruct students to read multisyllabic words fluently.

The Harcourt Reading Program was assessed as having the highest percentage of sufficiency for third grade fluency discretionary items. This means that third grade teachers selected most of their high frequency irregular words from commonly used word lists. These teachers used passages that contained irregular words that had already been taught for the building of fluency. Also the teachers used repeated readings which contained the currently learned reading words.

Houghton Mifflin Reading Program

According to the review of Oregon Reading First Center, the Houghton Mifflin Reading Program, compared to the other three specified reading program types, provides the highest percentage of phonemic awareness instruction for kindergarten and first grade high priority items and discretionary items. For example, the teachers provide high priority to systematic and explicit phonemic awareness instruction which progresses from easier activities to more difficult activities for isolation, blending, segmentation, and manipulation. In addition, the teacher models phonemic awareness and integrates the letter-sound correspondence instruction to phonemic awareness. The Houghton Mifflin Reading Program teachers provide a high percentage of instruction on discretionary items of phonemic awareness instruction. For example, the teachers focus beginning instruction on the phonemic level with short words and teach cognition by using auditory cues or manipulatives. Furthermore, teachers begin by focusing on the first sound of a word, then the last sound of the word, and then the middle sound of the word. The Houghton Mifflin Program kindergarten teachers provide phonemic awareness instruction daily for 15 to 20 minutes and brief, intensive practice of 9-12 weeks.

According to the Oregon Reading First Center review, the Houghton Mifflin Program first grade level received 100% on the overall assessment of instructional sufficiency of critical elements for phonemic instruction of high priority and discretionary items. Using this program, first grade teachers daily teach phonemic awareness skills until students are proficient; and, then the teachers expand to more complex phonemic structures, such as consonant blends. Also, teachers instruct in analyzing words daily on the phoneme level; studying phonemes in the position of words; and, work on the identification of phonemes in

words by adding, deleting, and changing sounds.

In addition, the first grade teacher of this program provides a sufficiency level of 96% on discretionary items for phonics instruction. Teachers provide instruction, strategies, and practice in beginning reading in strategically sequenced lessons based on known letters, letter combinations, word families, word patterns, and high frequency words.

The Houghton Mifflin Reading Program was assessed the highest of the specified reading programs in this study for its phonics instruction for second grade level high priority and discretionary items and its fluency instruction for second grade level for high priority items. Teachers model blending and reading words. They do not assume that students will just automatically transfer skills among different word types, and thus, teach these skills. Also, teachers provide reading instruction that moves from simple to more complex, provide many opportunities for seeing the word learned in various passages and contexts, utilizes spelling in connection to the words learned, and connects decoding to spelling. Furthermore, teachers of the Houghton Mifflin Reading Program preteach sight words and strategically sequence the teaching of high-frequency irregular words. Teachers work on commonly used, high frequency irregular words and work on fluency so that the student will be able to read 90 words a minute by the end of the second grade.

The Houghton Mifflin Reading Program was assessed by the Oregon Reading First Center (2004) as having the highest percentage of sufficiency of high discretionary items on the third grade level. For example, teachers using the Houghton Mifflin Reading Program sufficiently introduce word parts that are used frequently more than those that are not. Also, teachers using modeling, guided practice, explicit instruction, and “think alouds” to a

sufficient degree in this reading program. Furthermore, teachers instruct using examples with familiar words and word parts and then branch out based upon these words and word parts. Also, teachers use texts for application of skills being learned.

This program was assessed for providing the highest points of sufficient vocabulary instruction on the third grade level in comparison to the other three programs discussed in this study. For example, teachers use context clue strategies and provide opportunities for exposure to different vocabulary to be understood in varying texts. Also, teachers use varying methods and contexts for teaching the vocabulary. Furthermore, teachers using the Houghton Mifflin Reading Program sufficiently instruct on use of the dictionary, antonyms, synonyms, compound words, prefixes, suffixes, and multiple-meaning words.

The Houghton Mifflin Program provides the highest points for its reading comprehension instruction on the third grade level. Teachers may explicitly use the text for logically following ideas and stating the main idea. New material is connected using previously taught skills and strategies. Teachers explicitly teach the comprehension strategies, use varying strategies, provide ample examples, and utilize plenty of comprehension practice. Furthermore, the Houghton Mifflin Reading Program was assessed with the highest points in the reading comprehension discretionary items for third grade. Teachers instruct from simple to complex in comprehension strategies.

This program was most sufficient in listening comprehension on the kindergarten level for both high priority and discretionary items. Rated the highest score, teachers provide many opportunities for students to listen to and discuss the texts.

Scoring the highest of the four programs for second grade in vocabulary instruction of

high priority and discretionary items, the Houghton Mifflin Program provides direct instruction of vocabulary. Furthermore, teachers incorporate a great deal of exposure to much vocabulary in the stories; uses examples; and, teach strategies for word meanings, such as prefixes and suffixes.

Additionally, the Houghton Mifflin Program was rated the highest of the four programs for reading comprehension on the second grade level. The combination high priority and discretionary scores indicate that teachers sufficiently instruct students on locating information in the text; utilize prior knowledge to increase student comprehension, and teach story structure. Also, teachers explicitly teach students comprehension skills and strategies. The Houghton Mifflin Program was rated highly sufficient for the teacher in organizing instruction and the teaching of types of reading texts.

For reading comprehension instruction, the Houghton Mifflin Program received the highest scores for both high priority items and discretionary items. This means that this program is highly sufficient for teachers to use the passages and stories to teach comprehension skills, connect prior skills with the new skill or stories, and explicitly teach multiple comprehension strategies. Furthermore, teachers instruct from simple, familiar story structures and progress to more complex structures.

MacMillan McGraw Hill Reading Program

According to the Oregon Reading First Center's review, the MacMillan McGraw Hill Reading Program received the highest percentage overall assessment for phonics instruction for sufficiency by critical element of high priority items and discretionary items on the kindergarten level. For example, the kindergarten teacher introduces, explicitly models,

provides practice, assesses, and reviews high-utility letter sounds until they are automatic. Also, kindergarten teachers sequence lessons minimizing confusion of letter sounds and include some short vowels early in the sequencing. Explicit phonics instruction with guided practice in sounding, blending, and reading words is provided to allow many opportunities for reading, decodable word lists, decodable and connected text, introduction of regular word types, and practice in order for student to automatically learn and say high frequency words. Furthermore, the kindergarten lesson limits words introduced, and similar words are kept separate in the phonics lessons.

The MacMillan McGraw Hill Reading Program received the highest percentage from the Oregon Reading First Center's assessment of discretionary items for first grade fluency. Thus, teachers utilize repeated readings for students to gain fluency for currently learned reading words.

For vocabulary instruction on the kindergarten level, the MacMillan McGraw Hill Reading Program scored the highest of the four selected programs when both the high priority and the discretionary items were combined. For example, teachers use direct instruction for teaching vocabulary and meanings. Also, sufficient opportunities exist for students to use vocabulary in sentences and in varying contexts. Furthermore, the program provides for the vocabulary to be used in many types of passages and texts.

The Oregon Reading First Center scored the MacMillan McGraw Hill Reading Program the highest of the four program types for vocabulary instruction on the first grade level. Specifically, teachers incorporate exposure to much vocabulary through listening to many stories and texts.

Scoring the highest for first grade reading comprehension instruction for the both high priority and discretionary items, the MacMillan McGraw Hill Reading Program provides sufficiently for teachers to guide students through the story structure and explicitly teaches comprehension strategies. The lessons enable the teacher to explicitly introduce the story, discuss the story, and make comparisons to other stories.

Pearson Scott Foresman Reading Program

The Pearson Scott Foresman Reading Program was only given two top scores or percentages when compared with the other three programs. Oregon Reading First Center found the Scott Foresman Reading Program as being sufficient in its instruction of second grade fluency of discretionary items as compared to the other three reading program types discussed in this study. Thus, Scott Foresman Reading teachers utilize repeated readings of the words currently learned.

Criticisms of the Core Reading Program

While the National Reading Panel (2000) analyzed comprehensive research in reporting their findings that would become the NCLB reading initiative, there were concerns from national reading experts (Morrow, Gambrell, & Pressley, 2003). Concerns centered around the core reading programs in the teaching of reading.

The first concern of the NCLB reading initiative for core reading programs is that scripted programs would replace the creative instruction of the reading teacher (McLester, Oct 2002). Educators are concerned that highly scripted programs are favored (Manzo, Feb 2001); the program is too prescriptive (Manzo, Mar 2002); and teachers are told what to

teach, how to teach it, how many times to repeat the information, how to restate the lesson, and what materials and products to use (Manzo, Oct 2002). A criticism was that reading instruction would not be teacher empowered (McLester, Oct 2002).

Critics expressed concern that teachers would use Reading First as the "de facto" state initiative (Manzo, Mar 2002); schools and districts would direct individual teacher decisions about selection and evaluation of the curriculum-driven reading product, program, and instruction; and, the commercially published reading program would be espoused as the authority and qualified entity in reading instruction (Stevenson, Apr 2003). According to Ashton, Webb, and Doda (1983), powerlessness is a factor that contributes to a low sense of efficacy in teachers.

The second concern of educators is the need for flexibility in schools to determine the best way to assess and change reading instruction (Manzo, Feb 2004). Teacher efficacy has proved to be powerfully related to teachers' persistence, enthusiasm, commitment and instructional behavior (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). Teachers with a strong sense of efficacy are open to new ideas and are more willing to experiment with new methods to better meet the needs of their students (Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly & Zellman, 1977; Ghaith & Yaghi, 1997; Guskey, 1988; Stein & Wang, 1988). Efficacy is strongly related to both classroom and school decision making (Moore & Esselman, 1992).

A concern of educators was that there would be a great emphasis on high-stakes testing (Manzo, Feb 2001); a pressuring to choose a specific test (Greg & Gunn, May 2003), specifically the DIBELS (Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills) which is criticized for not having been studied adequately to support its wide usage and its ability to

measure higher-level reading skills (Manzo, Sept 2005).

The third concern is the NCLB's reading agenda's approach to literacy reform is strictly, explicitly phonics-based (Manzo, 2001, 2002) at the expense of other elements. Zimmerman, president of Breakthrough to Literacy, stated that there are other elements needed in a comprehensive reading program (Manzo, Oct 2002). Allington contended that whole language is needed in a comprehensive reading program (Allington, 2002). According to Patterson (1997), schools attempting reform should consider how teacher efficacy can contribute to a positive school climate and improve the chances for lasting meaningful school reform.

The fourth concern is that leading reading experts are challenging the government's reliance on the findings of the National Reading Panel. Allington, Cunningham, Pressley, Garan, Drashen, Yatvin, and Shannon question the implementation of a reading program based on scientifically based research as defined by the National Reading Panel (Allington, 2002).

The fifth concern is that NCLB's reading initiative would limit how teachers teach (Manzo, Feb 2001). Because 120 minutes are required for daily Reading First program (WV Department of Education Technical Assistance Guide, 2005) and 90 minutes are required for daily non-Reading First programs, are teachers limiting other subjects, such as science and social studies? Gloria Pipkin argues that policy-makers have gone too far in telling teachers how to approach the teaching of reading. According to the International Reading Association, excellent reading teachers' voices need to be heard and their experience and expertise need to be respected as providing the essential component for reading success (Farstrup, Jun/Jul

2002). Teachers with a higher sense of efficacy exhibit greater enthusiasm for teaching (Allinder, 1995; Guskey, 1984; Hall, Burley, Villeme, & Brockneier, 1992).

Self-efficacy beliefs have received increasing attention in educational research (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Findings suggest that efficacy beliefs of teachers are related to their instructional practices and to various student outcomes (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Researchers report that teachers' beliefs affect their instructional activities and their orientation toward the educational process. Pajares stated that educators should explore what factors contribute to strong and positive teaching efficacy in varied domains. Investigations of teacher efficacy and the influence of these beliefs on teacher practices and student outcomes will help explain how teachers' beliefs influence students' achievement (Maehr & Pintrich, 1997; Pajares, 1992). Two studies which are concerned with teacher efficacy and reading include Burkhart and Oxendine.

Burkhart's study in 2004 analyzed the Reading First teachers' perception of the effectiveness of their training in guided reading. Burkhart stated the need for additional research on the topic of reading and teacher efficacy. Specifically, exploring the effects of teacher efficacy due to the satisfaction level of teacher training was recommended. The author stated, "If teachers feel they are more effective, they may be more effective in their teaching strategies" (Burkhart, 2004, p. 72).

Oxendine's study in 2005 explored the sources that contribute to the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers during the early stages of implementing comprehensive changes in reading instruction. This study explored the Reading First teachers' self-efficacy. The author recommended a study that builds on two bodies of knowledge: educational change and

theories and models of teacher self-efficacy (Oxendine, 2005).

In summary, there is much research on the topic of reading. This research was used by the National Reading Panel to make recommendations for which the mandate of NCLB formulated its reading initiative. However, the research on reading was not about teacher efficacy and core reading programs. There is a paucity of literature concerning reading program type and the relationship to teacher efficacy. The search for teacher efficacy and core reading programs turned up no results. The search for teacher efficacy and reading programs turned up no results. At the time of this writing, there were few studies on teacher efficacy and its relationship to reading. Therefore, this study explored the relationship, if any, between teacher efficacy and selected reading program type. As a secondary focus demographic relationships with teacher efficacy were explored because the research involved suggested further exploration on situational and organizational factors which may contribute to teacher efficacy. Next, Chapter III will present the methods involved for this topic.

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

The purpose of this study was to examine teacher efficacy and its relationship to selected reading programs. This examination further explored those relationships by selected demographic factors. There is a need to consider this aspect of the teacher as a critical element in enhancing the reading curriculum and instruction and raising student achievement. It is important to understand the role of general and personal teaching efficacy in teaching the selected core reading programs as a criterion for effective schools. The results of the study yielded factors in understanding and predicting this aspect of teacher motivation termed teacher efficacy.

Sample

Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale (1984) combined with an author-created Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire was inserted via a link in emails to a random sampling of all current elementary grades 1-5 teachers of reading in the state of West Virginia. According to the West Virginia Educational Information System, there are 6,204 (N=6,204) elementary teachers in West Virginia who teach grades 1-5 (Nancy Walker, personal communication, October 11, 2008). The list of certified elementary teachers in West Virginia was obtained from Nancy Walker, West Virginia Department of Education (Nancy Walker, personal communication, November 21, 2008). The names of elementary teachers were imported into the SPSS system to obtain a random sample.

Minimum sample size for this study was 362 (n=362) elementary teachers from a population of 6,204 (N=6,204) current elementary teachers of grades 1-5 of the West Virginia public school system. Sample size for this study uses a systematic random selection

procedure with a confidence interval of .05. The confidence interval of .05 ensures that if the same question were asked of the 6,204 population of elementary teachers 1-5, the same response of the sample would fall within 5 percentage points plus and minus if it were asked on the whole involved population. This sample is sufficient to allow generalization of the findings to the population (Creative Research Systems, 2007-2008; Dillman, 2000, p. 207).

According to Dillman (2000), the formula to derive the sampling size utilizes the following: population (P), sample error of .05 of the true population (B), Z statistic corresponding to 95% confidence level (C), the size of the population (Np), and the sample size (Ns). The formula to determine the sampling size is the following:

$$Ns = \frac{(Np)\ (p)\ (1-p)}{(Np - 1)\ (B/C)^2 + (p)\ (1 - p)}$$

Using the formula, Dillman constructed a table which listed the sampling sizes for practical use for surveying (Dillman, 2000, p. 207).

For this study, the sample size was doubled plus one for the purpose of increasing the likelihood of achieving a 50% plus one return rate for the mailing distribution for participation in the study. Therefore, 725 teachers were asked to participate in the study.

Design

The conceptual literature supports the hypothesis that it is reasonable to test the relationships in this quantitative study (Angle, 2006; Burkhart, 2004; Franklin, 1989; Hughes, 2006; Loup, 1994; Madden-Szeszko, 2000; Mark, 1989; Oxendine, 2005; Rogers, 2006; Sarabun, 1995; Sofford, 1995; Taylor, 2005). Specifically, this study is a descriptive study. A multivariate correlational design was employed to investigate relationships, if there

were any, between teacher efficacy and selected reading programs. More specifically, the teacher efficacy constructs that were described were general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy.

The teacher efficacy constructs on the survey were utilized to gather data and to determine their relationships, if any, to the selected reading program types. The selected reading program types were listed on an author-created questionnaire entitled Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire. For the purposes of this study, the selected core reading program types are the following: (1) Harcourt; (2) Houghton Mifflin; (3) MacMillan McGraw Hill; (4) Pearson Scott Foresman; and, (5) Other.

In addition, the author-created reading program type questionnaire also listed statements concerning selected demographic factors. This author-created reading program type/selected demographic factor questionnaire was entitled Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire. As a secondary focus, this study described the relationship, if any, between teacher efficacy and selected demographic factors. Specifically, the selected demographic factors examined in relationship to teacher efficacy were student socioeconomic status; student ethnicity; urban, suburban, and rural school districts; school enrollment size; teacher's level of education, teacher's certification; and, teacher's years of experience.

Teacher efficacy data was gathered by a survey called the Teacher Efficacy Scale of Gibson and Dembo (1984). This survey gathered data concerning general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy. The efficacy constructs are the independent variables (Research Instruments, 2008).

Data was gathered utilizing the selected reading programs and selected demographic factors by an author-created questionnaire, "Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire," which was attached to the Teacher Efficacy Scale. The participant checked the responses that best described his/her current teaching situation. The selected reading programs and selected demographic factors were the dependent variables.

The names of 725 elementary teachers of reading were randomly selected from a list of 6,204 elementary teachers in West Virginia. Both general and special education teachers were contacted and asked to participate. These teachers were identified as employed by the West Virginia Department of Education in a public school setting as elementary teachers. Elementary teachers are generally assigned self-contained settings, according to Nancy Walker, West Virginia Department of Education. Reading is one of the core subjects that elementary teachers in self-contained settings are assigned to teach as core subjects. According to Nancy Walker, there is the assumption that the population of elementary teachers 1-5 are teaching the core subject of reading (Nancy Walker, personal communication, October 11, 2008).

Data Collection

Prior to conducting the research, an email containing the cover letter request for participation in the study was distributed to the random sample of elementary public school teachers of reading (Appendix A). The cover letter explained the purpose of the study, Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval (Appendix B), and voluntary participation in the study. The cover letter provided directions with the link for the study and assured the participants complete anonymity. One week later, a follow-up email containing the cover

letter containing the link to the Teacher Efficacy Scale and Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire was sent. Two weeks after the original emailing, a third email containing the cover letter with the link to the survey and questionnaire was sent. Three weeks after the initial email, another email containing the cover letter with the link to the Teacher Efficacy Scale with the Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire was sent to any of the random sample of elementary teachers of reading who still had not responded to the survey. The cover email explained the purpose of the study, IRB approval, and voluntary participation in study.

Instrumentation

Two instruments were used and combined to collect data concerning the variables to be studied. The Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) was used in combination with an author-created reading program type/selected demographic questionnaire entitled Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire.

Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES).

The Teacher Efficacy Scale developed by Gibson and Dembo (1984) is an instrument measuring personal teaching efficacy and general teaching efficacy. Originally, Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale was a long form of 30 items. The efficacy scale of Gibson and Dembo (1984) is synonymous to Bandura's (1982) efficacy expectations and outcome expectations. Teachers were asked to answer items concerning their beliefs about the ability of teachers in general and about their own ability beliefs as a teacher.

There are two distinct constructs or two dimensions of teacher efficacy measured in subscales. The factor analysis measures general teaching efficacy (a teacher's belief in

teachers in general) and personal teaching efficacy (how the individual teacher believes in his/her own personal ability to reach students). Personal teaching efficacy was measured on a subscale with 9 items. General teaching efficacy was measured on a subscale with 7 items. Higher scores of the personal teaching efficacy subscale indicates higher levels of personal teaching efficacy. Lower scores of general teaching efficacy subscale indicates higher levels of general teaching efficacy.

The Teacher Efficacy Scale by Gibson and Dembo (1984) was the first solid attempt to empirically develop an instrument for measuring teacher efficacy. It has now become the standard instrument for measuring teacher efficacy. Gibson and Dembo's investigation had three phases.

In the first phase, Gibson and Dembo (1984) conducted a factor analysis to determine the dimensions of teacher efficacy and to determine how the dimensions related to Bandura's self-efficacy theory. The responses came from a pilot study of 208 elementary teachers using the 30-item Teacher Efficacy Scale.

During the second phase, a multitrait multimethod analysis was conducted which used three characteristics which included teacher efficacy, teacher flexibility, and teacher verbal ability. A positive correlation of .42 was found for teacher efficacy converging both closed-ended and open-ended formats. All three traits were significant beyond the .05 level which passed the criteria for convergent validity. Teacher efficacy was differentiated from the other two constructs.

The third phase which used classroom observations and teacher interviews suggested that high levels of teacher efficacy are associated with certain behaviors that influence

student achievement gains. In addition, high and low efficacy teachers demonstrate different patterns of academic focus, teacher feedback differences, as well as, teacher persistence and other high yield characteristics.

The Teacher Efficacy Scale uses a Likert format. The responses for each item range from "strongly disagree," "moderately disagree," "disagree slightly more than agree," "agree slightly more than disagree," moderately agree," to "strongly agree" on a six-point rating scale. Each response to each item statement will measure the degree of the teacher's perceptions of his or her current beliefs.

Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire

Accompanying the Teacher Efficacy Scale was an author-created reading program type/selected demographic questionnaire entitled Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire. The participants checked the selected reading program he/she currently teaches. The selected reading programs in the state of West Virginia are Harcourt, Houghton Mifflin, MacMillan McGraw Hill, and Pearson Scott Foresman, and Other (another reading program obtained by writing a waiver to the West Virginia State Department of Education). If the participant checked "Other," then the participant was asked to type in the comment box the specification of the reading program type that the teacher is using.

The participant checked the appropriate response that best described his/her current situational or organizational demographic. The responses indicated the participant's teaching situation in regard to current student socioeconomic status; student ethnicity; urban, rural, or suburban school district; school enrollment size; teacher's level of education; teacher's

certification; and, teacher's years of experience.

Validation of Instrument

The Teacher Efficacy Scale is an instrument supported by analysis to have both convergent validity (overlapping between different tests that measure the same construct) and discriminant validity (measure of the validity of a construct that is high when the construct fails to correlate with the other distinct construct). Examined by Gibson and Dembo (1984), the Teacher Efficacy Scale is supported through a multitrait-multimethod analysis across its two methods of measurement. The validity of teacher efficacy was analyzed on the traits of teacher efficacy, verbal ability, and flexibility using open-ended and close-ended methods of measurement. Evidence of teacher efficacy was differentiated from the other constructs through both methods. General teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy are consistently found to be two independent factors.

Instrument Reliability

Using Cronbach's alpha coefficients, an analysis by Gibson and Dembo measured internal consistency reliabilities. Cronbach's alpha measures how much the items in an index are measuring the same thing. Gibson and Dembo's (1984) Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) has an internal consistency reliability for personal teaching efficacy factor of .75. The internal consistency reliability factor for general teaching efficacy factor is .79. Guskey and Passaro (1993) stated that the Teacher Efficacy Scale is one of the most reliable and most frequently used instruments for measuring efficacy.

According to Santos (1999), when giving an evaluation survey, it is important that the instrument utilized will provide consistent and reliable responses. Alpha coefficient ranges in

value from 0 to 1 and may be utilized to describe the reliability of factors from multi-point formatted scales or questionnaires. The higher the score, the more reliable is the generated scale (Santos, 1999). A reliability coefficient of 0.7 is acceptable (Nunnaly, 1978). Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient normally ranges between 0 and 1, and the closer it is to 1.0 means that there is greater internal consistency of the items in the scale. Cronbach's alpha coefficient is important to be used for Likert-type scales and the analysis of the data must use summated subscales and not individual items (Gliem & Gliem, 2003).

Analysis of Data

Gibson and Dembo's (1984) Teacher Efficacy Scale was used in combination with the Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire. The Teacher Efficacy Scale scores were analyzed to determine the independent constructs or predictor constructs of personal teaching efficacy and general teaching efficacy. The factor analysis of Gibson and Dembo demonstrated that there are specific items that can be used to collect data for the two constructs. The article, "Teacher Efficacy: A Construct Validation," *Journal of Educational Psychology* (1984), referenced the factor loadings for the two constructs.

Nine statements were designed to measure personal teaching efficacy. To obtain the personal teaching efficacy score, the nine scores on the personal teaching efficacy items are added. The nine statements measuring personal teaching efficacy emerging from factor analysis by Gibson and Dembo (1984) are the following:

TES Item Number	Factor Descriptions of Personal Teaching Efficacy *higher total score indicates higher degrees of personal teaching efficacy

1	When a student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra effort.
12	When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level.
14	When a student gets a better grade than he usually gets, it is usually because I found better ways of teaching that student.
15	When I really try, I can get through to most difficult students.
19	When the grades of my students improve, it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.
21	If a student masters a new concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps in teaching that concept.
24	If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.
25	If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him quickly.
29	If one of my students could not do a class assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level.

There are seven statements designed to measure general teaching efficacy. To obtain the general teaching efficacy score, the seven scores on the teaching efficacy items are added. The seven statements which measure general teaching efficacy are listed in the following chart:

TES Item Number	Factor Descriptions of General Teaching Efficacy *lower total score indicates higher degree of general teaching efficacy
2	The hours in my class have little influence on students compared to the influence of their home environment.
4	The amount that a student can learn is primarily related to family background.
6	If students are not disciplined at home, they aren't likely to accept any discipline.
16	A teacher is very limited in what he/she can achieve because a student's home environment is a large influence on his/her achievement.
23	If parents would do more with their children, I could do more.
27	The influences of a student's home experiences can be overcome by good teaching.

30	Even a teacher with good teaching abilities may not reach many students.

Data from each construct were entered into SPSS data analysis software for each participant. Using descriptive statistics to examine the relationships of teachers' sense of efficacy, calculations were made on all variables including the mean, range, and standard deviation. The variables were the efficacy constructs, selected reading programs, and the demographic factors. The efficacy constructs were personal teaching efficacy and general teaching efficacy. The selected reading programs were Harcourt, Houghton Mifflin, MacMillan McGraw Hill, and Pearson Scott Foresman. The demographic situational or organizational factors were student socioeconomic status; student ethnicity; urban, rural, or suburban school district; school enrollment size; teacher's level of education; certification; and, years of experience.

Some correlational statistics were used. Correlational research was used to measure the relationship between variables to determine if they were positively related, not related, or negatively related. Correlational research is based on the assumption that there are interacting relationships (Field, 2000). In this study, correlational analyses were conducted to indicate the degree of relationship between each of the predictor variables (personal teaching efficacy and general teaching efficacy) and the criterion variables (reading program type/selected demographic factors).

The degree of the relationship is expressed as a number between -1 and +1. This is called the correlation coefficient. There is no relationship if there is a zero correlation. As the correlation coefficient mores toward -1, the negative correlation of the score of one variable

rises while the scores on the other variable decreases. As the correlation coefficient moves toward +1, the positive correlation demonstrates that the scores are increasing or decreasing together (Davis, 1997).

Multiple regression was conducted to determine the effects of the selected reading programs and the combined demographic variables with the efficacy constructs to determine whether the variables are related and the degree to which they are related. Multiple regression tries to predict a result from several— more than one— predictors (Field, 2000). The fundamental purpose of multiple regression is to learn more about the relationship between several independent factors and a dependent factor (StatSoft, Inc., 1984-2008). Multiple regression has allowed this study to examine the effect of many different factors on some outcome at the same time. Multiple regression was used to examine the effect of teacher efficacy constructs while accounting for the different reading programs and different demographic factors that influence the degrees of teacher efficacy. By using multiple regression to examine the effects of the selected reading program while accounting for differences in situational and demographic factors, this study can explore the part of these particular factors in personal and general teaching efficacy (QMSS e-Lessons, retrieved November 28, 2008).

CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis taken from the author-created Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire and Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Survey (TES). This chapter begins with an overview of the study. This is followed by the population and sample of the study. The research questions are listed. Following this information, the chapter provides in detail the data analysis results for each research question. The chapter concludes with the summary of the chapter.

Overview of Study

This study examined 364 public elementary school teachers' beliefs to determine if any relationship existed between teacher efficacy and selected reading programs. In addition, this study further examined the relationship of teacher efficacy to selected demographic factors. The study was designed to examine the relationship of each of the two dimensions of teacher efficacy— general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy— to determine if there existed a relationship between each construct of teacher efficacy to the selected reading programs. The selected reading programs were Harcourt, Houghton Mifflin, MacMillan McGraw Hill, Pearson Scott Foresman, and Other. Furthermore, the study was designed to examine each of the two dimensions of teacher efficacy: general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy, to determine if a relationship existed between selected demographic factors. The demographic factors were socioeconomic status; student ethnicity; school district rurality of urban, suburban, and rural; school enrollment size; teacher's level

of education, teacher's certification; and, teacher's years of experience.

Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale (1984) was combined with an author-created Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire. The first question was designed to gather quantitative data that examined what reading program type that teachers were currently utilizing in the teaching of reading. The second question was designed to gather quantitative data that measured the socioeconomic status of student families. The third question was designed to gather information about the demographic characteristic of the school district of the teacher as urban, suburban, or rural. The fourth question gathered demographic data on the teacher's school enrollment size as being large (more than 500 students), medium (200-499 students), or small (less than 200 students). The fifth question gathered information on the teacher's highest level of education. The sixth question gathered data on whether a teacher was considered to be highly qualified or not-highly qualified. The seventh question gathered information on the teacher's years of experience. The eighth question gathered information on the reading education of teachers. The ninth question gathered data on the ethnicity of the teacher's class of students.

Beginning with question ten and ending with question 39, teachers answered questions dealing with their beliefs in their abilities as teachers in general and of their beliefs in each one's personal ability to teach students successfully. This section was Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale. Results quantified the constructs of general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy.

General teaching efficacy is the participant's belief of teachers in general as being able to teach students successfully. Using the Teacher Efficacy Scale, item numbers 2, 4, 6,

16, 23, 27, and 30 were totaled to provide the total general teaching efficacy score. The lower the total score indicated the higher degree of general teaching efficacy. On these questions, teachers were asked to indicate their beliefs in teachers' abilities in general to reach students by selecting one of the responses using a six point Likert scale: 1= "Strongly Disagree," 2 = "Moderately Disagree," 3 = "Disagree Slightly More Than Agree," 4 = "Agree Slightly More Than Disagree," 5 = "Moderately Agree," or 6 = "Strongly Agree."

The questions that measured general teaching efficacy were the following:

The hours in my class have little influence on students compared to the influence of their home environments.

The amount that a student can learn is primarily related to family background.

If students are not disciplined at home, they aren't likely to accept my discipline.

A teacher is very limited in what he/she can achieve because a student's home environment is a large influence on his/her achievement.

If parents would do more with their children, I could do more.

The influences of a student's home experiences can be overcome by good teaching.

Even a teacher with good teaching abilities may not reach many students.

Personal teaching efficacy is the teacher's belief in his or her own personal ability to teach students successfully. To determine personal teaching efficacy, nine selected item responses from Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale were totaled. Responses from items 1, 12, 14, 15, 19, 21, 24, 25, and 29 were totaled to give the teacher's personal efficacy

score. The higher the total score results in higher personal teaching efficacy. The lower the total score results in lower personal teaching efficacy.

On these questions, teachers were asked to indicate their belief in their own personal ability to reach students by selecting one of the responses using a six point Likert scale: 1= "Strongly Disagree," 2 = "Moderately Disagree," 3 = "Disagree Slightly More Than Agree," 4 = "Agree Slightly More Than Disagree," 5 = "Moderately Agree," or 6 = "Strongly Agree."

Information was gathered concerning the following questions:

When a student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra effort.

When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level.

When a student gets a better grade than he usually gets, it is usually because I found better ways of teaching that student.

When I really try, I can get through to most difficult students.

When the grades of my students improve, it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.

When a student masters a new concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps in teaching that concept.

If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.

If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I

know some techniques to redirect him quickly.

If one of my students could not do a class assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level.

Population and Sample

The population for this study consisted of 6,204 (N= 6,204) West Virginia public elementary teachers. The population is a 2008-2009 list of full time public 1-5 grade elementary teachers provided by the West Virginia Department of Education. A random sample of 725 (n=725) teachers was selected from the database of full time public elementary teachers. These were primarily first through fifth grade teachers who currently taught reading. When the survey responses were received, it was discovered that a very small number of teachers were kindergarten or sixth, seventh, or eighth grade teachers. The author found this to be due to a recent transfer of grade level placement during the current school year.

Of the 725 teachers selected to participate in the study, 364 completed the survey. The survey results were acquired after four online survey requests over the period of one month. No hard copy postal survey mailings were required. The requirement of the sample size of 363 was needed for generalizability to the population. The actual return of 364 surveys results in a 95% confidence level.

Major Findings

This section presents major findings organized to correspond with each research question. The research questions are as follows:

What are the differences in general teaching efficacy among the core reading program types used by teachers?

What are the differences in personal teaching efficacy among the core reading program types used by teachers?

Is there a significant difference between general teaching efficacy due to selected demographic factors?

Is there a significant difference between personal teaching efficacy due to selected demographic factors?

Research Question One: What Are the Differences In General Teaching Efficacy Among the Reading Program Types?

The core reading program was the independent variable. The general teaching efficacy score was the dependent variable. Any missing data caused the participant not to have a general efficacy score. Statistics for each analysis are based on cases with no missing data for any variable in the analysis. Also, any missing data caused the participant not to have a core reading program score.

The results from the survey indicated 36.9% of the respondents currently used the Pearson Scott Foresman Reading Program. The Harcourt Reading Program was currently being utilized by the participants with 29.1% representation. MacMillan McGraw Hill was represented with 25.4% of the teachers participating utilizing this core reading program at the current time. Houghton Mifflin was least represented with only 1.4% utilizing the program.

Other core reading programs being utilized were represented by 7.1% of the participants. The other core reading programs that participants currently utilized were Open Court, Holt,

Prentice Hall, and Longman Keystone.

A data analysis was performed via an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) as illustrated in Table 1. Houghton Mifflin had the lowest mean score of 24.2 for general teaching efficacy. Harcourt Reading Program had the highest mean score of 26.5325. The mean score for MacMillan McGraw Hill was 25.4, Pearson Scott Foresman was 25.6017, and Other reading programs' mean was 25.8. The results of the data indicate no significant differences between general teaching efficacy among the core reading programs.

Table 1

Differences of General Teaching Efficacy Among the Reading Program Types

Source	df	F	ŋ	Sig.
Between Groups	4	.701	19.766	.592
Within Groups	312		28.213	
Total	316			

$p<.05$

Furthermore, data analysis comparing general teaching efficacy among the core reading programs with a 95% confidence interval for the mean with the lower bound, upper bound, minimum, and maximum for general teaching efficacy revealed no significant differences. In addition, multiple comparisons were run using a Bonferroni post hoc test. No significant differences were found for general teaching efficacy among the core reading programs which indicated the teacher's sense of teaching efficacy was not related to the type of reading program the teacher used in classroom instruction.

Research Question Two: What are the differences in personal teaching efficacy and selected reading programs used by teachers?

The survey gathered information related to personal teaching efficacy and selected reading programs used by teachers. Missing data from any of the unanswered questions by a participant resulted in a particular participant not receiving a personal teaching efficacy score. In order to be factored into the research question results, that participant had to answer all of the selected personal teaching efficacy question items. Not factored into the data analysis was any participant who did not respond to survey item number one in which the participant chooses the reading program type currently being taught.

The results indicated that there was no significant difference between personal teaching efficacy and the selected reading program types (see Table 2). However, the ANOVA showed a significant difference of personal teaching efficacy among two reading program types. The two groups were the Harcourt Reading and the MacMillan McGraw Hill Reading program types. The Harcourt Reading and the MacMillan McGraw Hill programs both showed a significant difference of .005. Harcourt had a mean of 41.1957 and MacMillan McGraw Hill had a mean of 43.9620. The confidence level was 95% for the mean. The

ANOVA between groups showed a significance of .002. Multiple comparisons of the post hoc test showed the significance of Harcourt and MacMillan McGraw Hill as .005.

Table 2

Differences of Personal Teaching Efficacy Among the Reading Program Types

Source	df	F	η	Sig.
Between Groups	4	4.237	111.001	.002
Within Groups	303		26.196	
Total	307			

$p<.05$

Research Question Three: Is There A Significant Difference Between General Teaching Efficacy and Selected Demographic Factors?

To determine if there was a significant difference between general teaching efficacy due to demographic factors, information was gathered from the results of participants as measured by the specified item responses for general teaching efficacy using Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale. Each demographic factor was analyzed separately to determine whether there was a significant difference between general teaching efficacy and

the selected demographic factor. The next section gives the results of the findings for the difference between general teaching efficacy and the selected demographic factor.

General Teaching Efficacy and Socioeconomic Status

The first demographic variable analyzed was socioeconomic status. Each participant selected their current description of the socioeconomic status of most of their students' families. The socioeconomic status choices were the following: high socioeconomic status and low poverty; medium socioeconomic status and medium poverty level; or, low socioeconomic status and high poverty. Of the participant responses on socioeconomic status, the most common response was medium socioeconomic status and medium poverty level. There was no significant difference between general teaching efficacy and socioeconomic status.

The findings indicate that teachers who teach students that come from medium socioeconomic status families with medium poverty levels are the teachers with higher general teaching efficacy. These teachers believe to a higher degree that teachers in general can teach students successfully as evidenced by the mean score of 25.6. The lower the score, the higher is the general teaching efficacy. The teachers with lower general teaching efficacy were the teachers who taught students of families with high socioeconomic status. The mean general teaching efficacy score was 26.6471 for teachers who teach students who come from high socioeconomic status families. The higher the score, the lower is the general teaching efficacy of the teachers involved in the study. The teachers believe to a lesser degree that teachers in general can reach students successfully regardless of socioeconomic status or poverty. Table 3 presents the findings using the statistical test of the one way ANOVA

conducted between general teaching efficacy and socioeconomic status. The findings indicate that there was no significant difference.

Table 3

Differences Between General Teaching Efficacy and Socioeconomic Status

Source	df	F	η	Sig.
Between Groups	2	.260	7.401	.771
Within Groups	319		28.482	
Total	321			

$p<.05$

General Teaching Efficacy and School District Demographic

The school district in which the participant taught consisted of the participant's description of urban, suburban, or rural. The predominant result was rural. An overwhelming percentage (67.5%) of teachers worked in a school district that was rural. A lesser number of teachers taught in a suburban school district. Suburban school districts were chosen by 25.4% of the participants in the survey. The least percentage (7.1%) of teachers currently taught in an urban school district.

There was no significant difference between general teaching efficacy and type of school district in which they currently taught. Teachers who were teaching in a suburban school district had the higher general teaching efficacy. The lower the general teaching efficacy score, the higher the general teaching efficacy. Indicated by the lower total mean

score of 25, suburban school teachers' score indicated that suburban teachers believe to a higher degree that teachers in general could reach students regardless of external factors. The teachers with the higher general teaching efficacy score were urban school teachers. The higher the general teaching efficacy score, the lower the general teaching efficacy. Teachers who work in urban school districts had lower general teaching efficacy as indicated by the mean score of 27.2. Teachers in rural school districts had the medium general teaching efficacy of the scores represented with mean score of 25.9. Table 4 indicates the results of the one way ANOVA between general teaching efficacy and type of school district.

Table 4

General Teaching Efficacy and School District Rurality

Source	df	F	η	Sig.
Between Groups	2	1.680	47.970	.188
Within Groups	316		28.549	
Total	318			

$p<.05$

General Teaching Efficacy and School Enrollment Size

Participants responded to a selected demographic questionnaire in which one item was the size of the school in which the teacher was employed. By selecting the response "large," the teacher taught at a school whose enrollment was more than 500 students. By selecting the response "medium," the teacher was currently teaching at a school in which the

school's enrollment was between 200 and 499 students. If the teacher selected the response "small," the school had an enrollment of less than 200 students. Based on the mean score of 25.3, teachers in small schools believe to a higher degree that teachers in general can teach students successfully regardless of external factors. The results indicate that teachers in schools with large enrollments have lower general teaching efficacy. Based on the mean score of 26.3, lower general teaching efficacy means that these teachers do not have as much of a belief as the other two groups that they have the ability to teach students successfully regardless of external factors. The higher the general teaching efficacy score, the lower the general teaching efficacy belief. There was no significant difference between general teaching efficacy and school enrollment size. The data was analyzed to determine if any possible relationships existed in schools according to how large or small the school enrollment size. Multiple comparisons were run using a Bonferroni post hoc statistical test. The results indicate no significant differences (see Table 5).

Table 5

General Teaching Efficacy and School Enrollment Size

Source	df	F	η	Sig.
Between Groups	2	.542	15.495	.582
Within Groups	319		28.586	
Total	321			

$p < .05$

General Teaching Efficacy and Teacher's Level of Education

The teacher's level of education involved the following choices: bachelor's; bachelor's +15; bachelor's +30; master's; master's +15; masters+ 30; master's + 45; doctorate; or other. The results indicated that the highest percentage of the teachers held a master's + 45.

The percentage of teachers who held a master's + 45 was 28.2%. The percentage of participants who held a master's + 30 was 18.4%. The percentage of teachers who held a master's + 15 was 10.2%. The percentage of teachers who held a master's degree was 4.5%.

Teachers holding a bachelor's +30 was 11%, holding a bachelor's +15 was 20.1%, and those holding a bachelor's degree was 5.6%. No participants held a doctorate degree.

According to the findings, teachers with master's degrees had the lower general teaching efficacy with the mean of 27.8. The higher the score, the lower is the degree of general teaching efficacy.

The teachers with the higher general teaching efficacy were the teachers with a master's degree plus 30. The mean was 24.3. The lower the score, the higher is the belief that teachers in general can teach students successfully.

ANOVA test presented the findings of no significant difference between general teaching efficacy and teachers' levels of education.

Table 6 presents the significance of .201. According to a Bonferroni post hoc statistical test, multiple comparisons again resulted in no significant difference between general teaching efficacy and the teachers' levels of education.

Table 6

General Teaching Efficacy and Teachers' Level of Education

Source	df	F	η	Sig.
Between Groups	7	1.410	39.833	.201
Within Groups	314		28.252	
Total	321			

$p < .05$

General Teaching Efficacy and Highly Qualified or Not-Highly Qualified

No significant differences were found between general teaching efficacy and whether the teacher was listed as highly qualified or not-highly qualified. Highly qualified teachers made up 95.9% of the respondents. Of those considered not-highly qualified, 4.1% made up the respondents. The following question was posed: According to the West Virginia Department of Education, which describes your teaching situation? Of the results, 355 participants did respond to the question, and 9 participants did not respond to the question. An overwhelming majority of teachers in West Virginia who participated in the study were considered to be highly qualified. The results were overwhelmingly "highly qualified."

General Teaching Efficacy and Teachers' Years of Experience

The data was obtained concerning the teachers' years of experience. Teachers who taught less than 5 years totaled 10.7%. Teachers who taught 5-9 years totaled 18.4%. Of those participants who taught 10-19 years, the percentage of teachers totaled 21.8%. The majority of participants had taught 20-29 years with 29.9% evidenced. The percentage of teachers who had taught 30 or more years was 19.2%.

While correlating the general teaching efficacy scores to the teachers' years of experience, the results found no significant difference. There were no significant differences between general teaching efficacy and teachers' years of experience. Table 7 describes the results.

Table 7

General Teaching Efficacy and Teachers' Years of Experience

Source	df	F	η	Sig.
Between Groups	4	.260	7.497	.904
Within Groups	316		28.856	
Total	320			

$p < .05$

The results indicate that the teachers who had taught 5-9 years had a mean score of 26.2. This indicates that these teachers had lower general teaching efficacy. The teachers who were

new teachers had the higher teaching efficacy with a mean score of 25.5. The lower the score, the higher is the general teaching efficacy beliefs. The significance level was .904.

Specialized Qualifications In Reading

Data gathered found an overwhelming number of teachers were qualified to teach reading because they had obtained an elementary education degree for multisubjects. An elementary degree in multisubjects means because the teachers received an elementary degree in multisubjects, they were certified to teach any core subject, such as reading, language, math, social studies, science, spelling, writing, or the fine arts. This is considered to be a common pathway to teaching elementary grades. Of the 347 teachers who answered the question, 91.6% of the teachers obtained the elementary education degree for multisubjects. To a lesser extent, 18.7% of the teachers obtained a masters degree in reading. Only 7.8% of the participants had a specialization in reading. Only 7.8% of the participants had a certification in reading. Because a participant could obtain a combination of the studied qualifications, the results do not add up to 100%.

Teachers were given the opportunity to specify other degrees, certifications, or specializations that enabled them to teach reading. Among the specified responses were degrees in specific learning disabilities; gifted education; multicategorical special education degrees such as, learning disabilities, mentally impaired, behavioral disorders, and autism. Other responses were specified trainings, such as extensive workshops related to reading; extensive workshops on NCLB (No Child Left Behind); Reading Recovery; or WV Reading Cadre. A lesser number of teachers stated degrees, such as masters + 60 hour; masters in communication studies, masters degree in multisubjects, masters degree in curriculum and instruction, masters degree in early childhood education, or reading authorization. A few

teachers stated their accolades in education, such as an expert teacher trainer of Jennifer Ashlock Reading Techniques, National Board Certification, or work as a Title One teacher of reading. One teacher stated that he/she was currently pursuing a masters degree in educational reading.

Student Ethnicity

Teachers who participated in the survey responded to the author-created Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire. An item on the questionnaire gathered information on the student ethnic or racial makeup to determine if there was a correlation between general teaching efficacy and student ethnicity. The results of this data analysis found no relationship. The results of the survey indicated that the majority of the students that the teachers were serving were White.

Students who were of White ethnicity totaled 94.75%. The actual number of White students served by respondents of this survey numbered 32,073. Students of Black ethnicity totaled 6.97% or 1,381 students. Hispanic students being served by teachers of this survey numbered 2.66% or 271 students. Asian students served by the participants in this survey were 1.48% or 126 students. Students who were American Indian were the lowest number served at 0.35% or 20 students. Pacific Islander students totaled 0.47% or 29 actual students. Teachers who answered the question on student ethnicity on the survey numbered 348, and those who did not respond to the question were 16 teachers.

Research Question Four: Is There a Significant Difference between Personal Teaching Efficacy and Demographic Factors?

Personal Teaching Efficacy and Student Socioeconomic Status

The first demographic variable analyzed was socioeconomic status. Each participant selected his/her current description of the socioeconomic status of most of their student's families. The socioeconomic status choices were the following: high socioeconomic status and low poverty; medium socioeconomic status and medium poverty level; or, low socioeconomic status and high poverty. On the Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire, participants were asked to describe the socioeconomic status of the students they served. The highest percentage of participants chose the medium socioeconomic status and medium poverty level with a 48.0% response. Close to this choice was the low socioeconomic status and high poverty with a 46.6% response.

Most teachers described the socioeconomic status of the students that they served as low or medium socioeconomic status with high and medium poverty level. A low percentage response of 5.3% believed that the students were high socioeconomic status and low poverty.

The results of the data analysis revealed that perceived levels of personal teaching efficacy, as measured by the mean scores of the Teacher Efficacy survey, generally had no relationship with the socioeconomic status of the students' families that the teachers served. Thus, there was no significant difference between personal teaching efficacy and socioeconomic status of student's families.

The higher the personal teaching efficacy score, the higher the teacher beliefs that he/she has the ability to reach students regardless of their socioeconomic status. According to results of this study, the mean for teachers in schools with low socioeconomic status and high

poverty was the highest with a mean of 42.7 meaning that these teachers had higher personal teaching efficacy than those teachers in schools with high or medium socioeconomic status. The teachers in schools with the highest socioeconomic status had the lower personal teacher efficacy mean of 41.4. Teachers in schools with students of medium socioeconomic status had the medium personal teacher efficacy scores of the groups represented.

A one-way ANOVA was utilized to analyze this situation in which socioeconomic status was interacting with the variables of personal teaching efficacy. When the ANOVA was run, the results found a significance level of .627. With a significance level of .627, the findings indicate that there were no significant differences between or within the groups of personal teaching efficacy and socioeconomic status. Table 8 presents the data analysis.

Multiple comparisons were run using a Bonferroni post hoc test. The Bonferroni post hoc test is a conservative test that was used to control the type I error rate. This test performs well because the group sizes are different due to a small deviation from normality. With a confidence interval of 95%, the findings indicate no significant differences between personal teaching efficacy and socioeconomic status.

Table 8

Personal Teaching Efficacy and Student Socioeconomic Status

Source	df	F	η	Sig.
Between Groups	2	.467	13.006	.627
Within Groups	311		27.828	
Total	313			

$p < .05$

Personal Teaching Efficacy and School District

The next demographic variable studied was the school district. The school districts were categorized as urban, suburban, or rural. To gather information about the teacher's school district, an item was placed on the survey asking the teacher to select the school district in which he/she currently taught. The selected responses to choose from were urban, suburban, or rural.

The findings indicate that teachers in urban schools have higher teacher efficacy than teachers in schools that are suburban or rural. A one-way ANOVA was conducted using the SPSS program. The results revealed a mean of 44.4 for personal teaching efficacy for teachers in urban schools. This indicated that teachers who were teaching in urban schools had higher personal teaching efficacy than teachers who were teaching in suburban or rural schools. Teachers in suburban schools had the medium personal teaching efficacy with a mean of 42.8. Teachers in rural schools had the lower personal teaching efficacy scores with a mean of 42.1.

The overall personal teaching efficacy scores were explored in relationship with the school district demographic of rurality. The teacher determined whether the school he or she taught in was urban, suburban, or rural.. This study does not find that there are any significant differences between personal teaching efficacy and the school district of the teacher. According to this study, the district of the school does not have a significant relationship to the degree of personal teaching efficacy. There was no significant difference between personal teaching efficacy and the school's urbanicity, suburbanicity, or rurality. Table 9 displays the results. Using the SPSS program for data analysis, a one-way ANOVA

was run. There was no significance between groups or within groups for between personal teaching efficacy and type of school district. The lack of significance was measured by .139.

Table 9

Personal Teaching Efficacy and School District Rurality

Source	df	F	η	Sig.
Between Groups	2	1.988	54.977	.139
Within Groups	309		27.657	
Total	311			

$p < .05$

Personal Teaching Efficacy and School Enrollment Size

The next demographic variable examined was the size of the school. By size of the school, the demographic was calculated by the number of students enrolled in the school in which the participant was currently teaching. A question was placed on the questionnaire that asked the participant to select the answer small (less than 200 students), medium (200-499 student), or large (500 or more students).

The findings indicate that teachers with large school enrollments have lower teacher efficacy than teachers who are in schools with medium or small enrollments. A one-way ANOVA was conducted using the SPSS program. The results revealed a mean of 41.6 for personal teaching efficacy for teachers in schools with large enrollments (500 or more students). This indicates that teachers who were teaching in large schools had lower personal

teaching efficacy than teachers who were teaching in medium or small schools. Teachers in schools with medium school enrollments had medium personal teaching efficacy with a mean of 42.6. Teachers in schools with low school enrollments had the higher personal teaching efficacy scores with a mean of 42.8. The overall personal teaching efficacy scores compared to the size of the school as based upon the school's enrollments does not find that there is any significant difference between personal teaching efficacy and the student enrollment of the school in which the teacher is employed. According to this study, the enrollment of the school does not have any significant relationship to the degree of personal teaching efficacy. There was no significant difference between personal teaching efficacy and the school's enrollment size as evidenced at a level of .316. Additionally, a Bonferroni post hoc statistical test with multiple comparisons was run. There was no significant difference between personal teaching efficacy and school enrollment size. Table 10 presents the data analysis.

Table 10

Personal Teaching Efficacy and School Enrollment Size

Source	df	F	η	Sig.
Between Groups	2	1.155	31.990	.316
Within Groups	311		27.687	
Total	313			

$p < .05$

Personal Teaching Efficacy and Teachers' Level of Education

The next demographic factor examined was the teacher's level of education. The teacher's level of education involved the following choices: bachelor's; bachelor's +15; bachelor's +30; masters; masters +15; masters +30; masters +45; doctorate; or other. The results of this study found no significant difference between personal teaching efficacy and teacher's level of education. The lower personal efficacy was found to be among teachers who held a bachelor's degree. The mean for teachers with bachelor's degrees was 40.3. The next lower mean was for teachers who held masters degrees. The higher efficacy group of teachers was "other" with a mean of 45.6. The other group of teachers consisted of only 5 teachers. All other teachers had medium personal efficacy scores with means of 42.2, 42.6, 42.9, 42.5, or 42.8. Table 11 presents the results.

Table 11

Differences Between Personal Teaching Efficacy and Teachers' Level of Education

Source	df	F	η	Sig.
Between Groups	7	.878	24.409	.524
Within Groups	306		27.790	
Total	313			

p< .05

Personal Teaching Efficacy and Teachers' Years of Experience

An item on the author-created Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire examined the years of experience of the participants. Participants selected the responses on the item that described how many years they had been teaching.

Novice teachers were those who had been teaching less than 5 years. If a teacher had taught five to nine years, then the participant would select the choice, "5-9 years." Veteran teachers would select from "10-19 years," "20-29 years," or "30 or more years" depending on their years of experience.

There was no significant difference between personal teaching efficacy and teachers' years of experience. The lack of significance was found to be .085 by running a one-way ANOVA. Table 12 presents these results.

Using a Boniferroni post hoc test, multiple comparisons were run. There was the lack of significant difference between personal teaching efficacy and teachers' years of experience.

Teachers with the higher efficacy were those with 30 or more years of experience. The means for personal teaching efficacy for these veteran teachers was 43.7.

The teachers with the next higher personal teaching efficacy were those teachers with less than 5 years of experience. The mean for personal teaching efficacy for these newer teachers was 43.

The teachers with the lower personal teaching efficacy scores were the teachers who had been teaching for 10-19 years. Their mean was 41.3. Table 12 presents these results.

Table 12

Personal Teaching Efficacy and Teachers' Years of Experience

Score	df	F	η	Sig.
Between Groups	4	2.069	56.716	.085
Within Groups	308		27.407	
Total	312			

$p < .05$

Summary of Findings

The purpose of this study was to explore the differences of two dimensions of teacher efficacy— general teaching efficacy and personal teacher efficacy— among the selected reading program types. In addition, teacher efficacy was explored to determine if there was a significant difference between the two dimensions of teacher efficacy and selected demographics. The participants in this study were 364 West Virginia elementary school teachers grades K-5. The sample allowed generalizability to the population of 6,204 elementary teachers in West Virginia. Using an author-created Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire and Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) (1984), a data analysis was conducted using the SPSS program to obtain descriptives. A one-way ANOVA and a Bonferroni post hoc test were the statistical tests run to determine these differences and significances.

The findings revealed no significances between general teaching efficacy among the reading program types. General teaching efficacy is the participant's belief that teachers, in general, can teach students successfully. Furthermore, there were no significant differences found between personal teaching efficacy among the reading program types. Personal teaching efficacy is the participant's belief that he or she can personally teach students successfully. The findings also showed no significant differences between general teaching efficacy or personal teaching efficacy and each of the selected demographic variables.

An ancillary finding indicates that there is a significant difference of personal teaching efficacy between two reading program types. There was a significant level of .005 between personal teaching efficacy and the Harcourt and MacMillan McGraw Hill programs when the one-way ANOVA and a Bonferroni post hoc test were performed. Teachers who were utilizing the MacMillan McGraw Hill program had a mean of 43.96 resulting in higher personal teaching efficacy. However, teachers who were utilizing the Harcourt program had a mean of 41.19 resulting in lower personal teaching efficacy.

The next chapter will be a discussion of the findings of the study. The discussion will give recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

This chapter provides a summary of the study including the purpose, population, and the method. Following this summary is an explanation of the findings. Conclusions and implications of the findings based upon the results of the study are discussed and, finally, recommendations for further research will be presented.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine teacher efficacy and its relationship, if any, to reading program types. This study further explored teacher efficacy and its relationship to selected demographic factors.

The study examined two dimensions of teacher efficacy and its relationship to reading program types. The first dimension of teacher efficacy is general teaching efficacy. This is the belief the individual has concerning the belief of teachers in general to successfully reach students. The second dimension of teacher efficacy is personal teaching efficacy. This is the belief of the teacher in his or her own ability to successfully reach students. Teacher efficacy is based on Bandura's social cognitive theory and has further been studied by leading experts including Ashton, Webb, Doda, Gibson, Dembo, Hoy, and Woolfolk.

The core reading program types that were examined in the study were the following: (1) Harcourt; (2) Houghton Mifflin; (3) MacMillan McGraw Hill; (4) Pearson Scott Foresman; and, (5) Other, meaning any reading program currently used by the school teacher as the core reading program. A core reading program is the basic curriculum for the teaching of reading and taught with fidelity to the program. The core reading program must have key components of phonemic awareness, phonics instruction, fluency, vocabulary, and

comprehension. The core reading program types were selected for this study because they were the programs approved by the West Virginia Department of Education where this study was conducted. The other reading programs were being utilized by teachers because the school district had written a waiver in order to teach that particular program, and the waiver had been approved by the West Virginia Department of Education.

There were two research questions that examined teacher efficacy and its relationship, if any, to the reading programs. The first research question was, "What are the differences in general teaching efficacy among the reading program types used by teachers?" The second research question was, "What are the differences in personal teaching efficacy among the reading program types used by teachers?" The results of this study revealed that there were no significant differences in either general teaching efficacy or personal teaching efficacy among the reading program types.

Furthermore, there were two research questions that examined teacher efficacy and its relationship to selected demographic factors. A third research question was, "Is there a significant difference between general teaching efficacy due to selected demographic factors?" A fourth research question was, "Is there a significant difference between personal teaching efficacy due to selected demographic factors?" The results of this study indicate that there were no significant differences in either general teaching efficacy or personal teaching efficacy and any of the selected demographic factors. The demographic factors examined were the following: (1) student socioeconomic status; (2) student ethnicity; (3) school district rurality of urban, suburban, and rural; (4) school enrollment size; (5) teacher's level of education; (6) teacher certification (highly qualified or not-highly qualified); and, (7) teacher's years of experience.

Population/Sample

The population was 6,204 (N=6,204) grades 1-5 elementary public school teachers of reading in the state of West Virginia attained via a list from the West Virginia Department of Education. A random sample of 725 (n=725) was obtained using the SPSS computer program. A return rate of 363 was required in order to obtain a 50% plus one return rate. The actual sample resulted in 364 participants from which the results of the data analysis was obtained.

Methods

Two instruments were combined to collect data. Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) was used in combination with an author-created reading program type/selected demographic questionnaire entitled Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire. This survey was placed online using the survey software branded as Survey Monkey. A cover letter requesting voluntary participation with confidentiality assured was emailed to the 725 teachers. A link was placed via email to access the survey. Through the online mailings with links to the survey, the required percentage of results was achieved in one month. The results were entered into the SPSS, statistical analysis software, and ANOVA statistical tests were performed.

Findings

Findings for Research Question One. What are the differences in general teaching efficacy among the core reading programs?

The findings of this survey reveal that there were no significant differences in general teaching efficacy among the reading program types. This indicates that there was no influence on general teaching efficacy from the type of reading program the teacher was using.

Findings for Research Question Two. What are the differences in personal teaching efficacy and selected reading programs used by teachers?

The findings of this survey reveal that there were no significant differences in personal teaching efficacy and the selected reading programs used by teachers. This means that there was no influence on personal teaching efficacy from the type of reading program the teacher was using.

There was, however, an ancillary finding that indicated a significant difference of personal teaching efficacy between the Harcourt and MacMillan McGraw Hill programs. A one-way ANOVA and a Bonferroni post hoc test revealed that teachers who were utilizing the MacMillan McGraw Hill program had higher personal teaching efficacy. The teachers using the MacMillan McGraw Hill reading program believed to a greater degree in their power as individual teachers to personally be successful in teaching students reading. Conversely, teachers who were utilizing the Harcourt program had lower personal teaching efficacy. The teachers utilizing the Harcourt program believed to a lesser degree that they possessed the ability as individual teachers to reach students successfully in reading.

Findings for Research Question Three. Is there a significant difference between general teaching efficacy and selected demographic factors?

The findings of this survey reveal that there is no significant difference between general teaching efficacy and the selected demographic factors: (1) student socioeconomic status; (2) student ethnicity; (3) school location of urban, suburban, and rural; (4) school enrollment size; (5) teacher's level of education; (6) teacher certification (highly qualified or not-highly qualified); and, (7) teacher's years of experience.

Findings for Research Question Four. Is there a significant difference between personal teaching efficacy and selected demographic factors?

The findings of this survey reveal that there is no significant difference between personal teaching efficacy and the selected demographic factors: (1) student socioeconomic status; (2) student ethnicity; (3) school location of urban, suburban, and rural; (4) school enrollment size; (5) teacher's level of education; (6) teacher certification (highly qualified or not-highly qualified); and, (7) teacher's years of experience.

Conclusions

Teachers are the critical element for making a reading program successful. The lack of significance found between general teaching efficacy among the reading program types may be due to the similar trainings that teachers who are utilizing these selected programs have received. Lack of significance between general teaching efficacy among the selected reading program types may have resulted in the participants believing that since teachers, in general, have received extensive training since 2002 on the essential elements of instruction of fidelity to core reading programs through Reading First and K-3 Tiered Reading Model that all teachers should be adept at providing phonemic awareness, phonics instruction,

vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension according to following the reading programs. Thus, there is little difference in general teaching efficacy among the selected reading program types. Support for this conclusion stems from 96% of the participants believing that their training program and/or experiences have given them the necessary skills to be an effective teacher. In addition, 68.5% of the participants believe that they have had enough training to deal with almost any learning problem.

Failure to find significance of personal teaching efficacy among the core reading programs may be due to extensive training in reading and the ability to have fidelity to the implementation of core reading programs. For example, one may conclude that teachers believe in their ability to faithfully follow the text, and the text has prescribed and often scripted information for the teacher to follow precisely. One might conclude that the individual teachers personally believe that they have had so much training that they should know exactly how to teach a core reading program with highly prescribed and scripted teacher texts.

A lack of significance of both general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy among the core reading programs may be due to the utilization of research-based strategies by teachers in general and as individual teachers in their classrooms. A reasonable conclusion may be that research-based strategies which have been the basis for the teaching of reading under No Child Left Behind have appeared to create present day classrooms that are more similar than different, as well as, teachers who believe more similarly than differently.

A significant difference between personal teaching efficacy between two reading program types may be due to the MacMillan McGraw Hill Reading program. This provides

teachers with the methods and materials that enable them to possess their own higher individual and personal beliefs that they could teach that program, whereas the Harcourt Reading Program gave the teachers fewer methods and materials to result in their possessing a lower teaching efficacy. A conclusion may indicate that the difference between the core reading programs caused the difference in personal teaching efficacy.

A lack of significance of general teaching efficacy and selected demographic factors: (1) student socioeconomic status; (2) student ethnicity; (3) school location of urban, suburban, and rural; (4) school enrollment size; (5) teacher's level of education; (6) teacher certification (highly qualified or not-highly qualified); and, (7) teacher's years of experience may be due to the tiered interventions that accompany the tiered reading model that reach all students regardless of the teacher attributes, student demographics, or school organizational structure. It is concluded that the teaching of reading under No Child Left Behind is more alike than different. These similarities that have made the teaching of reading very similar across all school districts may have also appeared to have similarly affected the teachers' beliefs about the abilities of teachers in general regardless of the demographic factors.

The lack of significance between personal teaching efficacy and the selected demographic factors: (1) student socioeconomic status; (2) student ethnicity; (3) school location of urban, suburban, and rural; (4) school enrollment size; (5) teacher's level of education; (6) teacher certification (highly qualified or not-highly qualified); and, (7) teacher's years of experience may lead one to conclude that Reading First and K-3 Tiered Reading Model is being implemented similarly in schools. Also, it may be that teachers feel basically the same in confidence that they, as individual teachers, can teach the reading program to students regardless of their diversity.

The literature supports there is little difference between schools in terms of the teachers' knowledge of the Reading First plan and, as well, the similarities in the amount and type of professional development (Rogers, 2006). Another supportive study was that of Burkhart (2004). Burkhart (2004) examined teacher efficacy and Reading First and determined that if teachers feel they are more effective, then they may be more effective in their teaching strategies. Furthermore, Fives (2003) provided literature that has indicated that teacher efficacy is related to teachers' knowledge. Also, Oxendine (2005) conducted a qualitative study on the educational change that was the implementation of Reading First. Oxendine (2005) linked teacher's self-efficacy and its importance in change. Specifically, Henson (2001) stated that meaningful professional development can change teacher's self-efficacy. The results of this study indicated that the professional development and training that teachers have received as a result of the national initiative on reading has created more similarities than differences in teacher's personal and general teaching efficacy among the core reading programs.

Implications

The results of this study provide important implications in relation to the body of knowledge relevant to this study. In addition, this study is important in terms of implications for professional practice.

The basis for this study of teacher efficacy lies in Bandura's self-efficacy theory. In 1977, Bandura presented "Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control," and "Self-Efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioral Change." Then in 1986, Bandura presented "Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory." In 1993, Bandura wrote "Perceived Self-Efficacy in Cognitive Development and Functioning." Bandura's self-

efficacy theory and the social cognitive theory have laid the foundation for this study. Studies on the topic of teacher efficacy were in the earliest stages during the 1980s (Rosenholtz, 1989).

During the 1980s and 1990s, the topic of teacher efficacy was studied in relation to classroom teaching practices. Examples include, higher teaching efficacy is related to the use of the teacher's willingness to use innovative methods (Rangel, 1997), effective teaching practices (Trentham, Silvern & Brogdon, 1985), collaboration (Edwards, Green & Lyons, 1996), commitment to learning goals (Moore & Esselman, 1992), and job satisfaction (Hyson, 1991).

Additionally, the topic of teacher efficacy was studied in relation to student academic achievement (Ross 1994; Tracz & Gibson, 1986; Turgoose, 1996), student behavior concepts and programs, and special education (Ross, Cousins & Gadalla, 1996). Multi-level research by Hill and Rowe (1994) suggested that differences in student learning were attributable to teachers making the difference in student performance. More specifically, "individual" teachers make a difference in student's learning outcomes (Wyatt, 1996).

During the 1990s and continuing to the present time, the topic of teacher efficacy has been studied to determine the relationship to demographic and organizational factors. The results of these studies have been mixed. Studies were conducted by Hoy and Woolfolk (1990), Soodak and Podell (1997), and Taylor (2005).

Additionally, from 2000-2009, the topic of teacher efficacy has continued to explore relationships to student achievement and innovations. Thus far, in the 21st Century, the topic of teacher efficacy has branched out in studies to explore its impact in varying areas. Such areas include leadership, co-teaching, technology, reflective practice, professional learning

communities, assessment, curriculum, mentorship, professional development, interventions, student motivation, and various settings. Collective teacher efficacy is being studied in the 21st Century, as well as, efficacy relationships to such concepts as teacher knowledge, pedagogy, and school climate, according to ProQuest database searches.

Actually, the topic of teacher efficacy was most profound in the educational literature as a component of the effective school's research. Researchers have spent three decades studying what makes schools effective. Termed correlates of effective schools, there is a component called "high expectations." The topic of teacher efficacy has been meshed within this correlate. The concept of teacher efficacy was most popular in educational circles during the 1980s.

Although studies have been conducted on teacher efficacy in the last ten years, the results have not received the recognition of results during the 1980s. The research has not been substantially acknowledged by educators nor by the people who shape policies or those who make curricular decisions for classrooms and teachers. Instead, educational policy makers and other educational decision makers appear to be looking toward initiatives, such as programs and projects, in attempts to teach all students successfully regardless of the students' socioeconomic status, parental influence, and family background.

Researchers need to take the research in this study and with three decades of teacher efficacy, analyze the research, and then make recommendations for best practices in high teaching efficacy and high efficacy teaching strategies. Researchers can analyze the research on teaching efficacy and present the findings that should guide the departments of education in making an initiative on high efficacy teaching. Researchers can present evidence-based research literature on teachers and present its implications for teaching instruction.

Researchers can assess the status of the three decades of research on teaching efficacy. The researchers can present the results of this research in order to facilitate the effectiveness of teachers in schools. Importantly, the researchers can address the critical skills in the acquisition of building high teacher efficacy. Also, the researchers can specifically address how teacher efficacy affects students of differing demographics, as well as, teacher backgrounds and characteristics.

A goal of the United States Department of Education is to examine the effectiveness of educational programs, practices, and policies. Another goal of this national department is to provide scientific evidence of what works, for whom, and under what conditions (ED.gov, 2009). Because of these two goals, it would be appropriate for the national department of education to read and utilize the evidence of this study, as well as the research of 30 years on teacher efficacy. Teacher efficacy has historical evidence of being linked to all aspects of both of the goals of the United States Department of Education.

Policymakers and other educational decision makers frequently acknowledge that teachers make the difference in student learning. Simultaneously, the policymakers and educational decision makers continue to look for that magic bullet that is going to bring all students up to grade level in reading. Part of the federal mandate, No Child Left Behind (2002) and Blueprint for No Child Left Behind (2007), the Reading First Initiative has given the promise of making all children readers on grade level by the end of the third grade. Based upon the findings of the National Reading Panel (2000), instruction of reading should include the critical elements of phonemic awareness, phonics instruction, fluency, comprehension, and vocabulary. To provide these critical elements, the primary instructional tool that

teachers utilize is the core reading program. The reading initiatives, Reading First and Tier K-3 Reading Model, require teachers to follow the core reading program with fidelity.

According to the reading initiative, the core reading program may or may not be commercial textbook series. Although this is stated, basal reading programs from companies are the core reading programs that are being utilized to serve this purpose. Creating "A Consumer's Guide to Analyzing a Core Reading Program Grades K-3: A Critical Elements Analysis" (2006), Simmons and Kame'enui reference "Teaching Reading is Rocket Science" (Moats,1999) to articulate the importance of adopting a core reading program. A quote under the section "Why adopt a core reading program?" (p. 2), is the following:

> The requirements of curriculum construction and instructional design that effectively move children through the 'learning to read' stage to the 'reading to learn' stage are simply too important to leave to the judgment of individuals.

This study can be utilized as a resource for considering the role of the teacher by textbook companies when writing commercial reading programs. Consideration of teacher efficacy and its interaction to various reading program types can be important in writing the commercial reading program. Implications of this study suggest the need to incorporate criteria that will enhance confidence of teachers as they work to implement the reading program type. Commercial reading program companies need to consider the context and situations of the teacher. Commercial reading companies need to understand that the task of creating a reading program which promotes student learning rests heavily on self-efficacy and the talents of the teachers who teach that reading program. To sustain a successful core reading program will require motivating the very people who will teach the program.

There were significant differences between personal teaching efficacy between the two reading programs, Harcourt and MacMillan McGraw Hill core reading programs. Consideration of the results of this study on teacher efficacy should be given by commercial textbook writers, specifically the Harcourt reading program type, when writing the core reading programs. Authors of commercial reading programs should utilize the results of this study, particularly listening to the voices of the teacher as a critical element in the success of any reading program.

An implication of this study is for reading companies to receive input from teachers in designing the reading programs to address the needs of both the teachers and the vast demographics of the student population. Fidelity to the reading program types does not allow much flexibility nor does the fidelity to the reading program type provide much opportunity for teacher judgment. These should be built into the reading programs by the companies.

There are numerous variables in teacher efficacy that can create success for students in reading. Instruction in reading should not just be about phonemic awareness, phonics instruction, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. Instruction in reading, mired with complexity, should also enhance teachers believing that they do make a difference.

Professional development initiatives should target practices that enhance teacher efficacy. Motivational workshops and professional development in building morale for educators could be implemented that use the findings of this study and the three decades of research findings to inspire the value of high efficacy teachers. Professional learning communities might take the information from this study and the research on teaching efficacy to build high efficacy teachers. Collaboration should be provided based upon efficacy research results. School districts and schools could provide training on the

knowledge of teacher efficacy to coaches that, in turn, use the knowledge to improve teacher efficacy at the school and classroom level.

Principals need to provide motivation based upon the findings of this study and other teacher efficacy research which will elevate teachers in the building of high teacher efficacy. Practicing shared decision making with teachers is an important act that principals can initiate to determine how the reading program will be implemented. Principals holding the key to teacher and program effectiveness can provide high efficacy modeling, emotional responsiveness, verbal persuasion, vicarious examples of high efficacy teaching, and respect for the efforts that teachers expend. According to the results of this survey, an overwhelming percentage of the participants believe that when a student did better than usual, many times it was because the individual teacher exerted a little extra effort. Teachers believe that they can be successful with the most difficult students when they really try. If a principal builds a teacher's belief in oneself, it will help increase the effort that the teacher expends on teaching, increase the time the teacher will persevere when confronting obstacles, and increase the resilience of the teacher in facing adverse situations.

The findings of this study indicate that 50% of the participants taking the survey believed that if students are not disciplined at home, they will not accept any discipline. Also, 91% of the participants believed that if parents would do more with their children, the teacher could do more. The majority of participants believed that the teacher is very limited in what he/she can achieve because a student's home environment is a large influence on his/her achievement. An implication is that more work that connects parenting with schooling needs to occur. In addition, schools and universities may consider providing more research-based

disciplinary techniques that teachers may utilize that will build the teacher's efficacy level when dealing with difficult students.

Another result of this study found that 60% of the participants believed that many teachers are stymied in their attempts to help students by lack of support from the community. This may possibly imply that just as commercial businesses market what they are selling, so must educational systems market what they are trying to accomplish in order to get "buy in" from the community. The "selling" of education for what it takes to reach the children must be intensive and ongoing.

Finally, this study found an overwhelming 92% of the participants had an elementary education degree for multisubjects, but the vast majority did not have a masters degree in reading, a specialization in reading, or a certification in reading. An implication of this study is for universities to market opportunities for degrees in reading, specializations in reading, and certifications in reading. A consideration is for universities to provide the relevant knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and research on teacher efficacy in order to raise the efficacy of reading teachers. When all factors are considered, this study found that teachers who participated overwhelmingly believed that teachers are a very powerful influence on student achievement.

Recommendations

Based on the findings in this study, there are several recommendations for future research:

Replication of this study in other states by exploring teacher efficacy among other states' approved reading program types.

Research examining the state of teacher efficacy as it currently exists.

Analysis of teacher efficacy research.

Research on differences of teacher efficacy and reading intervention techniques.

Research exploring teacher efficacy and reading strategies.

A study measuring teaching effectiveness which explores the difference between teacher efficacy and other variables which have been determined to produce teaching effectiveness.

Research on teacher efficacy and change-agent projects.

Qualitative research that examines teacher efficacy among the reading program types.

Research on comparisons of reading program types on the 4th and 5th grade levels.

Research on teacher efficacy and its relationship to parent and community.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Contents of Email for Participation in Study

Anonymous Online Survey Consent

Dear Educator:

I am asking for your help. I am a doctoral student at Marshall University Graduate College. I am working on my degree in curriculum and instruction.

You are invited to participate in a research project entitled "The Relationship between Teacher Efficacy and Reading Program Type" designed to analyze the relationship between teacher efficacy and reading program type. The study is being conducted by Patricia L. Harvey, doctoral student of chairperson, Dr. William Fred Pauley and the doctoral committee of Dr. Michael Cunningham and Dr. Lisa Heaton from Marshall University Graduate College and has been approved by the Marshall University Institutional Review Board (IRB). This research is being conducted as part of the dissertation requirements for Patricia L. Harvey.

This survey is comprised of an on-line Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale and author-created Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire and will take about 15-20 minutes to complete. Your replies will be anonymous, so do not type your name anywhere on the form. There are no known risks involved with this study. Participation is completely voluntary and there will be no penalty or loss of benefits if you choose to not participate in this research study or to withdraw. If you choose not to participate you may either return the blank survey or you may discard it. You may choose to not answer any question by simply leaving it blank. Once you complete the survey you can delete your browsing history for added confidentiality. Completing the on-line survey indicates your consent for use of the answers you supply. If you have any questions about the study, you may contact Dr. William Fred Pauley, student's chairperson, at (304) 746-1996 or Patricia L. Harvey, doctoral student, at (304) 575-8596.

If you have any questions concerning your rights as a research participant you may contact the Marshall University Office of Research Integrity at (304) 696-4303.

By completing this survey and returning it you are also confirming that you are **18** years of age or older. Please print this page for your records.

If you choose to participate in the study, please click on the link below to access the survey:

http://www.surveymonkey.com

Appendix B: Institutional Review Board Approval

APPENDIX C: Permission To Use Gibson And Dembo's (1984) Teacher Efficacy Scale

----- Original Message -----

From: Myron Dembo

To: 'Anita Hoy' ; plharvey@access.k12.wv.us

Sent: Saturday, November 22, 2008 8:15 PM

Subject: RE: question about TES

From: Myron Dembo [mailto:dembo@usc.edu]
Sent: Saturday, November 22, 2008 4:15 PM
To: 'Anita Hoy'; 'plharvey@access.k12.wv.us'
Cc: 'Myron Dembo'
Subject: RE: question about TES

Hi Anita—

How have you been. I watched the Ohio State-Michigan game today. Congratulations.

Patricia- You are free to use my TES scale. However, you should also review Anita's scale.

Best wishes,

Myron

Myron H. Dembo

Stephen Crocker Professor in Education

600 Phillips Hall

3470 Trousdale Pkwy

Rossier School of Education

University of Southern California

Los Angeles, CA 90089-4036

Phone: 213-740-2364

Fax: 213-740-2367

Home office phone and fax: 818-343-2119

From: Anita Hoy [mailto:anitahoy@me.com]
Sent: Saturday, November 22, 2008 12:34 PM
To: plharvey@access.k12.wv.us
Cc: Myron Dembo
Subject: Re: question about TES

The last e-mail I had for Myron Dembo was

dembo@almaak.usc.edu

But I believe he is happy for people to use it in research.

Anita

Anita Woolfolk Hoy, Professor
Educational Psychology & Philosophy
School of Educational Policy and Leadership
The Ohio State University
Columbus, OH 43210

phone: 614-488-5064
fax: 614-292-7900
e-mail anitahoy@mac.com

http://www.coe.ohio-state.edu/ahoy

On Nov 22, 2008, at 12:07 PM, plharvey@access.k12.wv.us wrote:

Dr. Hoy:
The purpose of this email is to ask for your expertise on the following matter:

How does a person get permission to use the TES (Gibson and Dembo, 1984) in a doctoral research study?

Thank you,
Patricia Harvey
plharvey@access.k12.wv.us

Appendix D: Author-Created Reading Program Type/Selected Demographic Questionnaire

1. READING PROGRAM TYPE/SELECTED DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Please indicate your current situation by checking the appropriate answer. Your answers will be kept strictly confidential and will not be identified by name.

1. What reading program are you currently using?

- ○ Harcourt
- ○ Houghton Mifflin
- ○ MacMillan McGraw Hill
- ○ Pearson Scott Foresman
- ○ Other (please specify) _____

2. How would you currrently describe the socioeconomic status of most of your student's families?

- ○ High socioeconomic status and low poverty
- ○ Medium socioeconomic status and medium poverty level
- ○ Low socioeconomic status and high poverty

3. How would you describe the school district in which you teach?

- ○ Urban
- ○ Suburban
- ○ Rural

4. How would you describe your school's enrollment size?

- ○ Large (more than 500 students)
- ○ Medium (200 - 499 students)
- ○ Small (less than 200 students)

5. What is your highest level of education?

- ○ Bachelor's
- ○ Bachelor's + 15
- ○ Bachelor's +30
- ○ Masters
- ○ Masters +15
- ○ Masters + 30
- ○ Masters + 45
- ○ Doctorate
- ○ Other (please specify)

6. According to the West Virginia Department of Education, which describes your teaching situation?

- ○ Highly qualified
- ○ Not-highly qualified

7. As of the 2008-2009 school year, which best describes your years of experience?

- ○ less than 5 years
- ○ 5-9 years
- ○ 10- 19 years
- ○ 20 - 29 years
- ○ 30 + years

8. What certification(s) or specialization(s)enable you to teach reading? Check all that apply.

- ☐ elementary education degree for multisubjects
- ☐ masters degree in reading
- ☐ specialization in reading
- ☐ certification in reading
- ☐ other

Other (please specify)

9. Write the percentage of students by ethnicity that you are currently teaching. The percentages should total 100%. (Do not use the % mark. The numerals must be whole numbers.)

White	
Black	
Hispanic	
Asian	
American Indian	
Pacific Islander	

CURRICULUM VITAE

Patricia Lee Harvey, Ed.S, Ed.D.
PO Box 191
Jumping Branch, WV 25969
harvey25@marshall.edu
plharvey@access.k12.wv.us
plharvey@earthlink.net
September 29, 2009

Workshops and Conferences

2008-2009	WVEIS WEB
2008-2009	Parental Involvement: RESA I & WVDE
2008-2009	RESA I Fine Arts Presenter
2008-2009	Policy 2419/ Policy 2520.1/ RTI/ Collaboration
2008-2009	Math RTI
2008-2009	IEP Training
2008-2009	ISAC Financial Computer Program
2008-2009	Fine Arts Project: Phase 3
2008-2009	Data Analysis
2008-2009	Customer Service
2008-2009	Policies
2008-2009	Book Study *Worksheets Don't Grow Dendrites*
2008-2009	Acuity & Writing Roadmap Technology Training
2008-2009	5-Year Strategic Plan; Crisis Intervention; OEPA
2008-2009	Safe School Plan/ DIBELS Analysis/ SAT/RSP/PBS
2008-2009	21st Century Leadership Series III
2008-2009	Creative Curriculum/Technology/Policy Update
2008-2009	21st Century Assessment/ Legal Issues
2008-2009	Legal Issues for School Administrators
2008-2009	Leadership for Advancing Adolescent Literacy
2008-2009	What Administrators Need to Know About Lexiles
2008-2009	RTI: Basics/ Deepening Our Understanding
2008-2009	21st Century Learning, Resources, and Tools
2008-2009	Personnel Evaluation
2007-2008	RESA I Arts Team Project: Phase 2
2007-2008	21st Century/ Collaboration/Leadership/Skills
2007-2008	3-Tier Reading
2007-2008	K-3 Reading Model/K-3 Reading Module
2007-2008	Kids First Initiative
2007-2008	Teach 21 Website Launch
2007-2008	4-D Experience
2007-2008	Programmatic Review of Leadership Lens
2007-2008	21st Century Leadership Academy
2007-2008	Technology for 21st Century Leaders
2007-2008	Professional Learning Communities
2007-2008	Vision/Mission
2007-2008	Personnel Evaluation
2007-2008	School Leadership for 21st Century
2006-2007	21st Century Leadership Institute
2006-2007	5 Year Strategic Plan

2006-2007	Parental Involvement
2006-2007	Attendance Director
2006-2007	Instructional Leadership
2006-2007	Test Analysis
2006-2007	Palm Pilot/DIBELS Training
2006-2007	Reading First IPAP
2006-2007	Fine Arts Team Project: Phase 1
2006-2007	Testmate Clarity
2006-2007	Co-Teaching
2005-2006	Addressing Behavior Issues for Special Ed. Students
2005-2006	Build Respect/Stop Bullying Success in Stages
2005-2006	Data Analysis
2005-2006	Fine Arts
2005-2006	Highly Qualified Principal
2005-2006	IEP Training
2005-2006	School System Leadership
2005-2006	Standards Based Curriculum
2005-2006	Westest Assessment Data/Writing Assess. Data
2004-2005	School System Leadership Team
2004-2005	5-Year Strategic Plan
2004-2005	Math Leadership Conference
2004-2005	Discipline & Behavioral Assessments
2004-2005	Crisis
2004-2005	CPR & First Aid
2004-2005	BIP & IEP Training
2004-2005	Content Standards for Elementary
2003-2004	Middle Level Cadre for Developing Modules
2003-2004	WVEIS Data Conference
2003-2004	Content Standards for Social Studies
2003-2004	Classroom Walkthroughs
2003-2004	Principal's Academy
2003-2004	Effective Schools-County Support Team
2003-2004	School System Improvement Team
2003-2004	School Reform: Study Groups
2003-2004	Special Education IEP Training

AWARDS

School Recognition: Principal of Jumping Branch Elementary

2008-2009	Adequate Yearly Progress
2007-2008	Adequate Yearly Progress
2006-2007	WV Exemplary School
2005-2006	WV School of Excellence
2004-2005	Adequate Yearly Progress
2003-2004	Adequate Yearly Progress
2002-2003	Adequate Yearly Progress

Teacher Recognition

Summers County Teacher of the Year

AFFILIATIONS

2002-present	WVNAESP Elem & MS Principal Assoc
2002-2004	WVDE Middle Level Education Cadre
1982-2002	WVAFT
1998-2002	Delta Kappa Gamma
1978-1982	WVEA

INTERESTS

Education
Leadership
Curriculum & Instruction